

MANAGEMENT

For Modern Families

Second Edition

Irma H Gross

PROFESSOR EMERITUS OF HOME MANAGEMENT
MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY

Elizabeth Walbert Crandall

PROFESSOR OF HOME MANAGEMENT
UNIVERSITY OF RHODE ISLAND



STERLING PUBLISHERS (P) Ltd.

3640 Mori Gate
Delhi-6

695 Model Town
Jalandhar

MANAGEMENT FOR MODERN FAMILIES (2nd Edition)

by

Irma H Gross and Elizabeth W Crandall

Copyright © 1963 Meredith Publishing Company

Copyright © 1954 Appleton Century Crofts Inc

Reprinted by permission of the publishers Appleton Century Crofts Division of Meredith Publishing Company All rights reserved This book or parts thereof must not be used or reproduced in any manner without written permission For information address the publisher Appleton Century Crofts Division of Meredith Publishing Company, 440 Park Avenue South New York N Y 10016

This book has been published with the assistance of the Joint Indian American Standard Works Programme

First Indian Reprint Edition 1967

For Sale in India Pakistan, Burma & Ceylon

Price Rs 8 00 *

PRINTED IN INDIA

**PUBLISHED BY SH S K GHAI MANAGING DIRECTOR
STERLING PUBLISHERS (P) Ltd AND PRINTED AT
NEW ERA OFFSET PRINTERS DELHI-6**

MANAGEMENT

For Modern Families



Preface

This revised edition like the original is designed primarily for courses in Home Management offered at the college level. High school teachers of homemaking and students in adult classes also will find it helpful. In this book we emphasize the point of view that management is a mental activity highly significant in determining the quality of life experienced by families. We continue to use the 3 step managerial process as a valuable framework for the slowly evolving theory of home management. Although all management is based on decision making as affected by values, home management has unique characteristics that differentiate it from business management. The approach to decision making used is in harmony with that of other fields of learning.

The material in the book has been brought up-to-date and incorporates new research findings. The new edition however is somewhat different in organization and emphasis from the first one. Part One on the theory of management is enlarged. It provides an overview of home management in which are outlined the purposes of management, values and decision making in relation to management, the process by which it operates, the family resources that are to be used, and certain factors which affect their use. Much of the treatment of the life cycle formerly scattered throughout the book has been unified in Chapter 6 of this Part. Special attention has been given to the problems of home management in a world of change.

Part Two shows how the management process can be applied to utilize most effectively the specific resources of the family. Attention is given not only to the traditional resources of money, time, and energy, but also to the interests and abilities of persons. We feel strongly that the managerial process is fundamentally the same for all resources. However, for each specific resource we have given a body of knowledge needed for making decisions about that resource. This knowledge varies in quantity and authenticity with each resource. The greatest development in such knowledge is the broadening of the concept of energy as a resource. Types of work simplification have been reduced to three classes instead

of the usual five. The application of work simplification principles to the problems of physically incapacitated homemakers is a new feature.

Part Three brings together information about home management as a field of learning. Chapter 15 on the Teaching of Home Management takes cognizance of the growing importance of teaching the subject in ways other than through the residence course, important as that still is.

This book is going to press at a time when there is considerable ferment in the field of home management theory. Its clarification through discussion is a continuing need, and the thinking of the authors has been stimulated by the current examination of principles. However, their fundamental approach as presented here has not changed markedly.

A set of learning experiences follows most of the chapters. These are planned to enable students to try out various phases of management related to their own situation, as students, as members of a family, and as potential homemakers. The experiences are of two types: situations for discussion, and activities that call for physical participation.

We, especially the senior author, wish it were possible to express appreciation by name to all those who have helped us through correspondence and through the loan of materials otherwise not easily available. The list is a long one. We are very grateful to these professional friends without whose aid it would not have been possible to bring the many phases of the book up-to-date. As before, Robert Crandall, the husband of the junior author, has really been a third partner in the undertaking.

Irma H. Gross

Elizabeth Walbert Crandall

Contents

PREFACE	v
PART I Overview of Management	
1 The Challenge of Management	3
2 Values Goals and Standards	20
3 Decision Making as the Crux of Management	63
4 The Management Process	89
5 Resources	123
6 The Family Life Cycle	150
7 Factors Affecting the Use of Resources	190
PART II Management Applied to Specific Resources	
8 Time	215
9 Energy and Allied Considerations	247
10 Work Simplification	277
11 Background for Money Management	331
12 Money	362
13 Information for Money Management	400
14 Family Security	445
PART III Home Management as a Field of Study	
15 The Teaching of Home Management	497
16 History and Development of Home Management	519
APPENDIX	547
INDEX	773

Figures

1	What Home Management Is	6
1	Motivation in Management	21
1	Demands upon Resources During the Family Life Cycle	151
1-2	The Income Cycle	152
1-3	Median Age of Wife at Various Stages of the Life Cycle in the U S 1890 and 1960	154
1-4	Income Trends for the Lifetime of a Family According to Age of Family Head	156
1-5	Patterns of Income and Expenses During the Life Cycle	157
1-6	Profiles of Family Income for Lifetime	158
1-7	Time Demands upon the Homemaker During the Life Cycle	159
1-8	Shapes of Days in the Family Life Cycle	161
1-9	Hypothetical Flow of Homemaker's Energy and Demands upon it During Family Life Cycle	162
1-10	Profile of Age Distribution	178
1-1	Management Scores of High School Graduates According to Economic Level	200
1-1	Typical Work Curve	227
1-2	Poor Warming up Periods	228
1-3	Work Curve of an Erratic Worker	230
1-4	Ratio of Number of Contractions to Length of Rest Period Necessary for Recovery	232
1-5	Body Position Favoring Complete Relaxation	233
1-6	Gantt Chart for Evaluation of Time Plans	240
1-1	Oxygen Consumed Increase over Standing for Various Activities	251
1-2	Development of Fatigue During Course of About a Two Hour Cleaning Period on Two Occasions	261
1-3	Alignment of Body Parts	265
1-4	Back Bending is Back Breaking	266
1-5	Substitute Leg Muscles for Back Muscles	267
1-6	Stretched Muscle Exerts Greater Force	268
1-7	Use Whole Body at Center of Weight to be Moved	269
1-1	Process Chart Showing Setting a Table	285
1-2	Operation Chart Showing Peeling Potatoes	286

Tables

3 1	Husband Wife Agreement on Values Underlying Financial Decision Making	81
5 1	Interrelationship of Time and Money Costs	143
6-1	Income Distribution by Age of Family Head for the United States 1960 (per cent)	157
6-2	What Parents Spend to Raise a Child to 18 Years of Age	172
7 1	Mean Distribution of Responsibilities Within the Family by Status Levels	195
7 2	Job-Related Expenditures of Working Wives	204
7 3	Use of Time for Homemaking Activities by Employed and Non-employed City Homemakers	205
8 1	Full time and Employed City Homemakers Use of Time for Homemaking on One Weekday	220
8-2	Patterns of Daily Use of Time for Homemaking of Farm Homemakers	221
8 3	Number of Persons in Household and Time Used for Homemaking by Homemaker	222
9 1	Percentage Increase in Energy Cost While Performing Household Tasks Above Energy Expended During a State of Rest	250
10 1	Motions Used in Laundering (Arrangement I)	297
10-2	Footsteps Used in Laundering (Arrangement I)	297
10 3	Effects of Grouped Changes in Kitchen Equipment on Saving of Time and Steps	300
10-4	Classes of Change	305
11 1	Distribution of Family Incomes for the United States—1947 1960 (in current dollars)	340
11 2	Distribution of Family Incomes by Occupation of Family Heads at Selected Income Levels for the U.S. 1960	341
11 3	Incomes in Relation to Size of Family for the U.S. 1960	342
11-4	Percentage Distribution of Family Expenditures, Based on Varying Totals All U.S. Urban Families of 2 or More Persons 1950	348
11 5	Expenditures for Items Other Than Food Clothing and Shelter Purchased by Urban Families in the United States as a Percentage of Total Expenditure for Current Consumption 1950, at Different Income Levels	350

11-6	Summary of Family Accounts—Average receipts and disbursements for major categories of family income expenditure and change in assets and liabilities by income class Urban United States 1950	/	353
11-7	Summary of Family Expenditure for Current Consumption by Income Level Urban United States 1950		354
11-8	Annual Budgets for a Family of Four at Two Income Levels III September 1961 Prices in San Francisco		355
11-9	Share of Annual Household Expenditures by Stage in the Life Cycle		357
11-10	Cost of Interim City Worker's Family Budget in 4 Cities		359
12-1	Your Statement of Income and Expense 19—		392
12-2	Your Balance Sheet		393
13-1	Annual Outlay for Home Ownership on Each \$1000 Borrowed		411
13-2	How Expensive a Home Can You Afford?		416
13-3	Transportation Budget for Salaried Worker San Francisco September 1961		424
14-1	Comparison of Major Types of Insurance Policies		455
14-2	Various Types of Investments and Their Relation to Business Cycle		472
14-3	Percentage Distribution of Liquid Asset Holdings Within Spending Units in Early 1959		474
14-4	Comparison of Sources of Personal Loans		487
14-5	The Consumer Balance Sheet		490
15-1	Form for Checking a Group Budget		501
A-1	Caloric Increase in Energy Cost While Performing Household Tasks Above Energy Expended During a State of Rest		549
A-2	Classification of Household Tasks According to Energy Costs		549
A-3	Energy Consumed During Work of the Homemaker		550
A-4	Life Expectancy and Deaths per Thousand in the U S		552
A-5	Total Savings Resulting from the Investment of \$100 a Year at Varying Rates of Interest Compounded Annually		552
A-6	Statutory Maximum Small Loan Rates September 1960	557	558
A-7	Rating Scale for Home Management Residence Course		562

Other Illustrations

Mobile Illustrating Management	4
It's called ironin! It's something ya gotta do if wrinkles make ya nervous	37
Kofranyi Apparatus for Determining Energy Expenditures	249
Soap Opera Forerunner	257
Maybe you're one of those people who never learned to relax	259
Ironing Strokes as Recorded by Cyclegraph	282
Beltsville Kitchen—Supply Cupboard	298
Beltsville Kitchen—Mix Center	299
Class I Change There's Always a Better Way to Do It!	307
Sequence of Steps is Important!—A Class I Change	309
A Finnish Kitchen	314
A Class II Change! Come on, Fred, everything's on the table	315
Functional Kitchen Storage	317
Class II Change New Equipment Brings Dramatic Changes!	318
Winifred is a wonderful wife Mother, but I miss the way you used to do Thanksgiving	319
Psychic Income!	333
Amount of Direct Income May Vary with Quality of Product— There! That saves us about 50 bucks!	337

*Overview of
Management*

The Challenge of Management

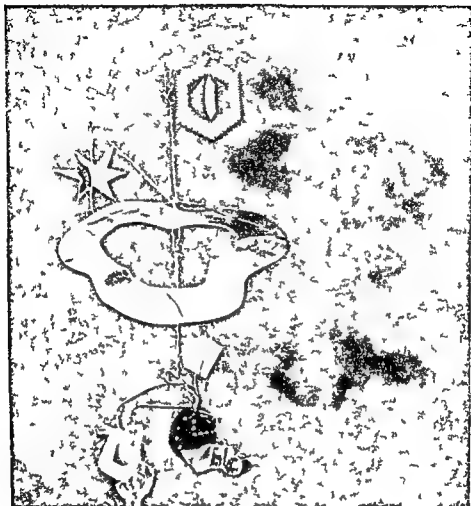
Home management to a greater extent than many other fields of subject matter cuts across different areas of living for it is concerned with the ways in which a family uses all its resources. Gudjonsson points out in the following words the vast importance of home management and the challenge it affords homemakers: Household management is in all countries the most common occupation employing the most people handling the most money and is of fundamental importance for the health of the people.¹

MANAGEMENT DEFINED

Although home management is a commonly used term and everyone knows in general what it means it is wise to clarify the meaning as the basis for further discussion. Reduced to its simplest terms management is using what you have to get what you want. Once this is recognized the value of management and the challenge it presents become clear. Its importance lies in the fact that it is the major *means* of achieving what you want—the family's goals. It challenges people to use their resources for purposes they consider important. What you have consists of the resources of the family members. These include not only time, energy, money, and material goods but also knowledge, interests, abilities, skills, attitudes of family members, and community facilities. Owing to its less tangible nature the second group of resources is less frequently recognized than the first but is equally important.

Such a simple definition shows the over-all purpose of management but it obviously cannot show *how* management helps families achieve

¹Sk. V. Gudjonsson "The Contribution of Technics to Domestic Science and Application of This Contribution to Improving the Homelife." *L'Enseignement Ménager* Vol. 24 No. 1 (March 1931) p. 4.



Mobile Illustrating Management

their goals. A more detailed definition gives a clearer picture. Home management consists of a series of decisions making up the process of using family resources to achieve family goals. The process consists of three more or less consecutive steps: planning, controlling the various elements of the plan, and the carrying it through, whether it is executed by oneself or by others, and evaluating results preparatory to future planning. This definition adds two new concepts—that home management is a mental process and that the process has definite successive steps.

An analysis of the work of various managers in business and industry shows that they have one characteristic in common—all are responsible for

making decisions. This is equally true of home management. The managerial process is undoubtedly vague and shadowy in the minds of many homemakers and they may recognize only one or two of the three parts. Each of the three steps may exist without the others but unless all three occur the managerial process is not complete. One homemaker may make a work plan but pay little attention to the way it is carried out or fail to sit down afterwards and consider its degree of success. A second homemaker who has a new helper is very conscious of the way work is being done (the second step) and a third may suddenly realize that because of extra demands upon her time she must stop and check over both what she plans to do and how well her plans have been working out. Other homemakers may actually carry out all three steps without being conscious of them. Success in achieving goals (and at the same time improvement in managerial ability) will be more rapidly and easily attained if the functions of each step in the process are recognized. These are briefly but clearly stated in the unpublished report of the Home Management Subcommittee of the National Conference on Family Life.²

Planning is mapping out courses of action in order to reach immediate and long term goals. In the home there are individual and family goals.

Controlling a plan in action simply means individual or joint effort in making the plan work. It calls for guiding and directing self or others to carry through the plan.

Evaluating is looking back over what has been done and judging the results in light of family goals.

Figure 11, *What Home Management Is*, shows that there is a general chronological order to the steps of management although there may be some overlapping. The arrows indicate that planning, controlling, and evaluating are all parts of the use of resources and that decisions in each step of the process are made in the light of goals selected by the individual family.

The interrelationships of the various parts of the management process are further illustrated in the photograph of a mobile (See p. 4). A movement of one symbol causes changes among the others. The topmost symbol consisting of two mesh discs represents distant vague goals and indicates that small goals must be achieved in order to reach larger goals. A three-dimensional star illustrates more immediate and clear cut goals. The large free form with three lobes portrays the three step process. This symbol moves only in one plane showing the constancy of the process despite changing goals and resources. Below the process in the mobile move symbols representing the family's resources. A book illustrates knowledge

² Held in Washington, D. C. May 1948.

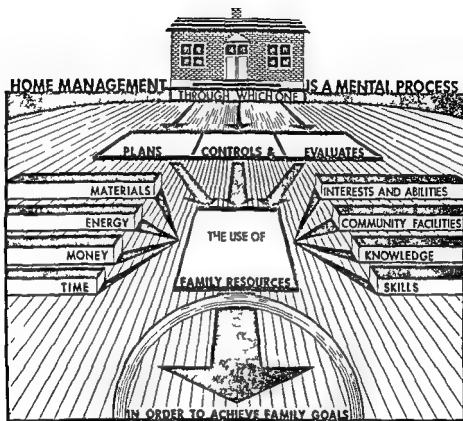


FIGURE 11 What Home Management Is

a clenched fist energy a clock time a dollar sign economic resources
and an automobile material goods

RELATIONSHIP OF MANAGEMENT TO CHANGE

Although change is in itself not a new phenomenon today's world has seen an acceleration of the pace of change beyond anything previously known. Presumably this rise in the rate of social, economic and political change will continue through the present century.²

Although some changes are clearly visible for example greater mechanization of the home, increased gainful employment of homemakers, dif-

² John H. Fischer "Foundations for Change" *Journal of Home Economics* Vol. 50 No. 9 (November 1958) p. 693

ferent proportions of time for work and for leisure greater mobility of families and greater dependence upon money the significance of their effect upon home management has not been fully recognized. However one thing is clear. Many new choices will be forced upon the homemaker as she finds herself in constantly changing situations. Less and less can she rely upon established ways of running her home. Tradition is a guide for decision making is giving way to problem solving.⁴

The fundamental purpose of management is to bring about change in an orderly way. This change may be the result of the achievement of freely chosen goals or it may consist of adjustments to changes which in themselves are beyond the control of the individual or family. Managers must consider what might be done better in the future than was done in the past and predict what changes in procedure the future will require.

Management means control and control means action—management succeeds not by what it has accomplished in the past but by its ability to control what is happening at present and what is going to happen in the future—the real question facing all management is 'What to do next?'—The heart of management is change.⁵

It is recognized however that the process of management does not change. It is the goals and resources that are altered. This changelessness is evident when one realizes that it does not vary even in crises. War, depressions, prosperity, personal catastrophies and more normal changes in the patterns of family life come and go and with them comes an increase or a decrease in resources or in the demands upon those resources and changes in family goals. The planning of what to do with the lesser or greater amount of money, time or energy, the control of the carrying out of the plan and the evaluating of the plan go on.

At first it might appear that a family which alters its goals is unstable. Yet it is obvious that the changing of goals is normal. As one goal is achieved another takes its place. As the family passes from one stage of its life cycle to another new goals become important. For example many young couples suddenly become concerned with insurance or other means of protection when the birth of their first child increases their financial responsibilities.

To recapitulate the purpose of management is to achieve goals and in so doing it brings about change. However the steps in the process of management remain the same. It is the goals, the resources and the demands upon the resources which vary.

⁴ Muriel W. Brown, "The Growth of Values in Childhood and Old Age," *Journal of Home Economics*, Vol. 52, No. 6 (June 1960), p. 413.

⁵ L. E. Hart, "Human Relations in Business," *Personnel Journal*, Vol. XXIII (January 1945), p. 266.

In response to the impact of change a body of knowledge concerned with planned change and its acceptance by those involved is slowly developing.⁶ It is not a new idea that people dislike directed change. Any variation suggested by an outsider implies criticism. So simple a statement as

Although I like your hat the ornament might be more becoming at a different angle is likely to place the owner of the hat on the defensive. Even when one recognizes the need for change there is still the problem of accomplishing it.

One thoughtful writer Dorothy Lee expresses concern for keeping a meaningful life in a world of change.⁷ She illustrates her point with the change from shelling peas at home to buying frozen shelled peas. The earlier practice had been a shared activity of a mother and daughter one in which the daughter may have glimpsed the woman's role she would play in later life or may have felt herself to be a significant part in the building up of family life. Dr. Lee warns of the importance of substituting other ways of meeting these deeper needs which may be ignored in a seemingly simple change in a household practice.

LACK OF UNDERSTANDING OF HOME MANAGEMENT

Although home management and its importance are increasingly understood there are still many misconceptions as to what it is and obstacles in the way of its improvement. There is therefore value in clearing away some of the negative considerations in the field.

Misconceptions Clarified

MANAGEMENT NOT MERE PERFORMANCE OF WORK

Home management is not mere performance of work. Because in most American homes the manager and the performer are one and the same person it is especially difficult to recognize the managerial aspect of carrying out a job. The administrative nature of management is more apparent when one person carries out a task another has planned. *The test of whether or not an activity is managerial is the degree to which its accomplishment requires fresh decisions.* Further evidence that home management is not mere performance of work is an additional statement from

⁶R. J. Lippitt, J. Watson and B. Westley, *The Dynamics of Planned Change* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1958).

Elizabeth W. Crandall, "Home Management and a Theory of Changing," *Journal of Home Economics*, Vol. 52, No. 5 (May 1959), pp. 311-318.

⁷Dorothy Lee, "The Individual in a Changing Society," *Journal of Home Economics*, Vol. 52, No. 2 (February 1960), pp. 79-80.

the Home Management Subcommittee of the National Conference on Family Life ⁸ Management in the home is a part of the fabric of living. Its threads are interwoven because decisions for the use of resources are made whether the family is at work or play. It is easy to see how management and performance of work have become confused for a decision does not become apparent until it is translated into action—which in the home frequently means physical activity. Thus specific situations and activities must be used to illustrate managerial decisions but an activity itself is managerial only in so far as it requires fresh decisions.

MANAGEMENT NOT LIMITED TO THE LEADER OF A GROUP

Another misconception concerning home management is that in each family there should be one person who is the manager. This leads to the unpleasant feeling that this individual has too much power and may manage the other members of the group. Our earlier definition indicates that one manages resources not people. While it is true that there is usually a leader all family members who are old enough to make decisions can and should participate in home management. Not only do they help make choices in relation to group resources and group goals but every individual has certain resources for which he or she alone is responsible. A homemaker is not confronted for the first time with problems in the use of time when she marries she has had to make decisions in relation to this resource in the past at home at school and perhaps at work. Furthermore the leadership in a family may shift from time to time. An example is given in an article stressing the relationship of home management and family relations ⁹

One of the most smoothly run homes the writer knows is one which is expertly managed. The homemaker is a part time professional woman. Her husband and two teenage children share with her the command of all the arrangements within the household and they coordinate their parts in its operation. Recently the writer and a young cousin were guests at this home for a Sunday dinner. Some time after the meal while the young people were visiting in one part of the house and the hostess and woman guest in another the husband unobtrusively left the living room and did up the dishes and kitchen work. On other occasions the writer has seen other members take over as unobtrusively. The cousin's remark was "I have never seen a husband in action before. My Dad will help my Mother but I never saw him start anything."

The role of starter or leader in household activities slips from one member of this family to another as the situation demands.

⁸ *Op cit*
⁹ Irma H. Gross, Home Management in Family Living, *Marriage and Family Living* Vol. XIII No. 3 (August 1951) pp. 102-103.

GOOD MANAGERS NOT BORN BUT TRAINED

A third misconception about home management is that good managers are born not made. At the turn of the century it was questioned whether or not industrial management could be taught. Today it is an accepted branch of study. The following quotation from Dr. Lillian Gilbreth, written in 1914, indicates that the acceptance of the science of management was sufficiently advanced at that time so that earlier doubts were a matter of historical interest.¹⁰

It was doubted that management could be studied otherwise than by observation and practice. Few teachers if any believed in the existence or possibility of teaching a science of management. Management was assumed by many to be an art, by even more it was thought to be a divinely bestowed gift or talent rather than an acquired accomplishment. It was common belief that one could learn to manage only by going out on the work and watching other managers. That watching a good manager might help one, but no one could hope really to succeed who had not the knack born in him.

Later in this book detailed reference will be made to a study which shows a positive correlation between amount and type of education and the homemaker's score on a managerial yardstick.¹¹ In addition, a complete chapter¹² on teaching home management to various age groups and through various media attests the authors' conviction (shared by an entire professional field) that management can be improved through education. It is admitted, however, that much learning of this nature can come through the day to day contacts in a family where the need for effective management is an intelligent concern. Generally it may be said that management ability is caught as well as taught.¹³

MANAGEMENT NOT AN END IN ITSELF

Still another misconception concerning home management has come into existence because some families have made a fetish of management itself. These families fail to see that management is not an end in itself but is a means to achieving family goals. Everyone is familiar with a too clean home where he feels he can't pick up a magazine for fear of disarranging a table, or the family where heated arguments arise over minute discrepancies in the accounts, or the occasional student who has such an inflexible time plan that she never can be persuaded to do anything on the

¹⁰L. M. Gilbreth, *The Psychology of Management* (New York: Macmillan, 1914), pp. 23.

¹¹See 1, 115.

¹²Ch. 13.

¹³National Conference on Family Life, op. cit.

spur of the moment. Some have come to feel that if they try to improve their management they will become too efficient and mechanical and that all pleasure will be taken out of life. Here again one needs only to restudy the definition of home management to see that the *fundamental purpose of management is to achieve family goals*. Whether or not efficiency is to be one of the goals chosen depends entirely upon the individual family.

FAMILY GOALS NOT DICTATED BY MANAGEMENT

The last misconception to be mentioned here is that home management dictates to families what their goals *should* be. This misconception serves a useful purpose by indicating that the careful choosing of goals is as vital as or perhaps more vital than the careful choosing of ways to reach goals once selected. Becoming aware of the implications of what one has chosen is important.

There is a wide variety of goals from which an individual or family may select. Goals differ in desirability to the individual and the family and in their effect upon the larger community; they are not all of equal value.¹⁴ It is true that the management process is a technique that can be used toward reaching any goal regardless of its kind or worth. Additional aids for choosing goals are necessary. Though less structured than the management process, they may be found.

The diversity of goals possible for a college student illustrates the problem that exists in choosing a major goal. A woman student may have as a primary purpose in college to train for a profession such as that of a dietitian, or to be a well rounded individual, or to get good grades, or to have a good time, or to find a marriage partner. Which one or ones shall she choose? Only the girl can make the choice, but she may be helped in that selection. At least general guides exist to help her out of this maze of somewhat conflicting objectives.¹⁵

Obstacles to the Improvement of Management

A number of obstacles to the improvement of management exist. These obstacles themselves can serve as a real challenge to the homemaker, for none of them is insurmountable.

FAMILIES NOT AWARE OF PROCESS OF MANAGEMENT

Many families are not aware of the steps in the managerial process or for that matter that management is a process and therefore do not see its

¹⁴ Saul Bernstein, *Self-Determination: King or Citizen in the Realm of Values*, *Social Work*, Vol. 5, No. 1 (January 1960), pp. 3-8.

¹⁵ See pp. 70-72.

takes a certain amount of planning—at least enough to choose and assemble a group of people who will enjoy both each other and that kind of entertainment. Usually it also requires having the makings of food on hand. The smooth operation of a home lessens tensions unless this operation becomes too inflexible. Always to eat dinner at exactly the same time may rob life of a little of the novelty of variation. On the other hand, never to know how late dinner will be makes for uncertainty in carrying out personal plans as well as the before-meal irritation caused by hunger. Lack of coordination in the routine use of the family car is another especial cause of tension.¹⁷

Another way in which management makes a real contribution to family relations is that¹⁸

Whether or not so planned, family values become somewhat shared through the managerial activities of the home. For example, to the extent that a family uses its money or its time or both for community activities and the church, to that extent it says in effect to its members: "The community is important to us. The church is important to us." To the extent that it expends its money and its time on in and with the auto and the television set, it says in effect: "Autos and television sets are important to us." Our point here is not so much *what* values are shared as that the sharing itself provides a common bond among the members.

Lastly, it is possible that a family or other intimate group might consciously choose the goal of working toward better group relations. In fact, it seems probable that most families consciously or unconsciously have this as a goal. Thus the family would make specific decisions concerning their use of resources aimed at improved relationships. The less tangible resources of interests, abilities, attitudes, and knowledge may prove of great value here.

IMPORTANCE OF PHILOSOPHY VERSUS TECHNIQUES IN MANAGEMENT

Because home management is a relatively young organized field of learning, it is a combination of fundamental philosophical thinking and rather simple and superficial techniques. Many people see only the latter and miss completely its depth and challenge. To illustrate this point, take the matter of managing family money. Budgeting techniques are relatively simple and quite widely known. On the other hand, there is a philosophical background underlying financial choices of which many people are unaware. Lack of this awareness makes the success of the superficial techniques questionable. The way a family above the subsistence level uses its

¹⁷ *Cross op cit*, pp. 107-108.

¹⁸ *Ibid.*, pp. 103-104.

money whether blindly or consciously is an expression of its philosophy of living. If that philosophy is clearly formulated it is relatively easy to assign channels for the use of money that are in harmony with it. Another philosophical concept which underlies family use of money concerns the rights of all members to the family economic resources. A family must make up its mind on that point to carry out the budgeting process successfully. These are not easy ideas to formulate and in no way result from rule of thumb procedures. As was suggested earlier techniques will not guarantee success in the use of resources unless fundamental values are weighed carefully. Once the philosophical choices are made and accepted techniques fall into line readily.

SIGNIFICANCE OF HOME MANAGEMENT

Although management is universal occurring in every home its results are less measurable in family life than in business and industry. In those areas the profits test is one inescapable measure. The home has no simple tangible yardstick although effective management in the home is recognized and its results observed. An army officer talking to a group of army wives made the point that as an officer has an efficiency report filed in Washington just so has his wife an unwritten efficiency report unfiled but known, labeled and catalogued throughout the service.¹⁹ In a study of household management Dickins included the selection of good, average and below average household managers. They were judged by rather informal observation of certain specific points including the ability to set goals and accomplish ends, the possession of a fund of information and the ability to use this information in solving problems.²⁰ From a sociological study comes research evidence that good management is linked with successful marriage adjustment. A significantly larger per cent of married than divorced men rated their wives very satisfactory [as manager]. A significantly larger per cent of divorced than married women rated themselves unsatisfactory and very unsatisfactory.²¹

In the past the need for management arose because resources were scarce. It was man's effort to make a little go around. That situation is still true for many families in relation to some or all of their resources. However, as the environment becomes more complex and resources more abundant a family is increasingly confronted with many possibilities for the use of its resources. As a pathway out of the resulting confusion man

¹⁹ Nancy Shea *The Army Wife* (New York: Harper and Row, 1941) p. xvi.

²⁰ Dorothy Dickins *Effects of Good Household Management in Family Living* Miss Agr. Exp. Sta. Bull. 380 May 1943 p. 4.

²¹ Harvey J. Locke *Predicting Adjustment in Marriage* (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1941) p. 283.

agement becomes more rather than less important in an era of abundance

This new significance of home management is clearly delineated in *New Directions for Home Economics*, the guide carefully developed by the American Home Economics Association at its mid century mark to serve for its next period of development. The responsibilities of home economists were set forth in certain competences to be developed. They were introduced by the following statement:

We believe that the clearest new direction for home economics is to help people identify and develop certain fundamental competences that will be effective in personal and family living regardless of the particular circumstances of the individual or family.

Of the 12 competences listed, six are in the area of home management, one concerns values and goals, one concerns decision making primarily, and four emphasize the planning and control steps of the management process in the use of resources to reach goals.

<i>Values</i>	Competence 1: Establish values which give meaning to personal, family, and community living; select goals appropriate to these values.
<i>Decisions</i>	Competence 5: Make and carry out intelligent decisions regarding the use of personal, family, and community resources.
<i>Management Process</i>	Competence 6: Establish longrange goals for financial security and work toward their achievement.
	Competence 7: Plan consumption of goods and services—including food, clothing, and housing—in ways that will promote values and goals established by the family.
	Competence 8: Purchase consumer goods and services appropriate to an overall consumption plan and wise use of economic resources.
	Competence 9: Perform the tasks of maintaining a home in such a way that they will contribute effectively to furthering individual and family goals.

THE CHALLENGE RECAPITULATED

The true challenge of home management is fourfold:

First, home management, though it offers no easy solutions for the intricate business of running a home, provides a framework for dealing with new situations as they arise in the use of the family's resources.

Second because management is decision making it offers an intellectual challenge to the homemaker. Even the simplest household tasks may involve decision making—a point which is overlooked by many. A case in point is work simplification.

There are mental challenges and resulting satisfactions in seeking out new and better ways of working in the household quite aside from the obvious reward of work time saved. To become motion minded in Lillian Gilbreth's expressive term offers new zest to simple familiar tasks.³

Third the vastness of the resources which are involved in home management stretches the imagination. They are literally the resources of the world.

Finally the decisions made by the homemaker and by the family have far reaching results. This is the most challenging aspect of management for through it the family determines what it wants from life. Elizabeth Hoyt expresses this idea tersely in the statement: "One buys the quality of one's life with one's time, energy and money."⁴

SUMMARY

In this chapter both popular and technical definitions of home management have been given. The former emphasized the use of what one has to achieve family goals and the latter stressed that management is a *mental process* consisting of three steps: planning, controlling the elements of the plan while carrying it through, and evaluating results preparatory to future planning.

It is important to recognize that management is a mental process because skill in carrying out this process can be developed and the method of attacking managerial problems large or small is then the same.

The purpose of management although itself an unchanging process is to bring about change in an orderly way as the resources and goals with which it deals vary.

Management is a means to an end rather than an end in itself and is such a subordinate to good relationships.

Home management as a field of learning combines fundamental philosophical thinking and rather simple superficial techniques for the use of resources.

Home management is a truly challenging field because of its help in meeting change in a rapidly changing world because of its intellectual

³ *Cross of us*, p. 103.

⁴ Elizabeth F. Hoyt, *Consumption in Our Society* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1938), p. 390.

nature because of the vastness of the resources involved and because of its far reaching results in determining the quality of life which families achieve

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

[The learning experiences presented here and at the end of most of the following chapters all have as their purpose learning by doing. Many of them were developed by students and new ones may well be created by the student users of this book. They may be used in a variety of ways

- 1 Topics for discussion presented by a panel to a class or study group. The experiences involving mental activity alone offer valuable learning situations for management inasmuch as management is the mental activity which precedes, accompanies or follows action.
- 2 Group activities performed in an organized laboratory period with findings summarized and if possible later applied.
- 3 Different applications carried out by individuals at a given time illustrating the same or related principles. Each stems from work which the student is doing at the time. The success of this type of experience depends upon her grasp of the purpose and method of procedure *ahead of time* and the presentation of an adequate report after its completion. This report should cover (a) method (b) findings and (c) conclusions which are really recommendations to follow in the future. Group discussions of use in new situations may well follow.]
- 1 What are some indications that a home is well managed?
- 2 Illustrate the statement that Management is an unchanging process whose purpose is to bring about change.
- 3 How do the responsibilities of a manager as director differ from those of a manager performer? How are they similar?
- 4 List 10 or 12 activities which are frequently carried on in your living situation (whether it be at home in a dormitory or in a home management house). Classify each as managerial or nonmanagerial. Justify your classifications. Are some of these activities managerial at one time and nonmanagerial at another? If so explain.
- 5 The following characteristics are frequently listed as being desirable if not essential in a manager: observation initiative promptness perseverance dependability adaptability cooperativeness judgment tact enthusiasm poise objectivity sense of humor.
 - a Group these characteristics into
 - (1) Those which are primarily concerned with
 - (a) Friendly group relationships
 - (b) Leadership
 - (c) Business aspects of management

(2) Those which are of equal importance in two of the above groups (Indicate which groups)

b Are there additional characteristics of an effective manager which you feel should be added to the list above?

- 6 How can a home management group recognize any special managerial needs of its members during the first few days and develop a plan for meeting them?
- 7 How significant is home management in the field of home economics? Justify your answer

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- BERNSTEIN Saul Self-determination King or Citizen in the Realm of Values *Social Work* Vol 5 No 1 (January 1960)
- BROWN Muriel W The Growth of Values in Childhood and Old Age *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 52 (June 1960)
- CRANDALL Elizabeth W New Explorations in Home Management *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 52 (October 1960)
- Home Management and a Theory of Changing *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 51 (May 1959)
- CUSHMAN Ella M *Management in Homes* (New York Macmillan 1945)
- DICKINS Dorothy *Effects of Good Household Management in Family Living* Miss Agr Exp Sta Bull 380 May 1943
- FISCHER John H Foundations for Change *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 50 (November 1958)
- FREEMAN Ruth C and DUE J M Influence of Goals on Family Financial Management *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 53 No 6 (June 1961)
- GRADY Ethyl M Management and Mental Health *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 54 No 4 (April 1962)
- GROSS Irma M Automation and the Family *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 49 (April 1957)
- Home Management in Family Living *Marriage and Family Living* Vol 13 (August 1951)
- GUDJONSSON Sk V The Contribution of Technics to Domestic Science and Application of This Contribution to Improving the Homelife *L'Enseignement Ménager* Vol 24 No 1 (March 1951)
- HART L C Human Relations in Business *Personnel Journal* Vol 23 (January 1945)
- Home Economics New Directions A Statement of Philosophy and Objectives* (Washington D.C. American Home Economics Association June 1959)
- HOYT Elizabeth E *Consumption in our Society* (New York McGraw Hill 1938)
- LEE, Dorothy The Individual in a Changing Society *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 52 (February 1960)
- National Conference on Family Life unpublished papers of Home Management Subcommittee Washington D.C. May 1948
- NICKELL, Paulena and DORSEY Jean Muir *Management in Family Living* 3rd ed (New York Wiley 1960)

2

Values, Goals, and Standards

MOTIVATION OF MANAGEMENT

Families are constantly making managerial choices or decisions in dealing with current situations. Something underlies and directs even simple choices though the decision maker may be unaware of the nature of these directing forces. They are spoken of as values, goals, and standards. Their realization is the purpose of management. In Figure 11 (page 6) Family Goals are shown as the focal point of the management process to indicate both their importance and the pull and direction they exert in the process.

It is desirable to bring the purposes of management out into the open to recognize them and to understand them. The three aspects of motivation in management—values, goals, and standards—are closely related to each other. *Values* is the key term of the trilogy. From values stem the other two aspects, *goals* and *standards*, although they in turn exert an influence on values and on each other. (See Figure 21.)

The term *values* is vague and subjective but used enough in everyday speech for its meaning to be reasonably clear. They are generalized concepts which are important to the individual, such as happiness or health. The term *goal* is more specific; it signifies something definite toward which one works. A *standard* in its most general sense is defined as something used as a basis of comparison. It may vary in precision from a unit of length, such as a foot, to the combination of values, goods, and services comprised in the term *standard of living*.

The interrelationship of the three terms is illustrated by the following. The Smith family hold the values of honesty and knowledge. They might have difficulty if asked to name these as important values to them, but their lives show the existence of these concepts and their children have absorbed them. From her evaluation of knowledge, daughter Sue has developed the goal of a college education and is now a college student.

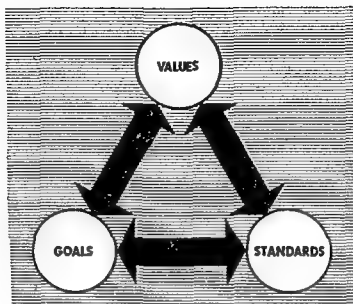


FIGURE 2-1 Motivation in Management

To the extent that she considers knowledge important she will set her self the standard of achieving knowledge in her courses as represented in part by B's or A's. To the extent that she holds honesty as a value she will set the standard by which she will obtain grades—by leaning on her roommate to help by applepolishing the teacher by cheating or by independent effort. Note here that each of the values of knowledge and honesty might be in conflict with a third value—success.

VALUES

Importance

It may be laboring the obvious to point out the great interest in values in the present era. Once the concern chiefly of philosophy values now claim the attention of various other disciplines—sociology economics farm management and home economics among them and of people in general.

Questions of value are important moreover not only to the philosopher but to any man. The philosopher may be busy with the philosophy of criticism but every man is busy day after day moment after moment with criticism itself. Every voluntary choice involves a weighing of values. Whenever one thing is

chosen when more than one is available the reason for the choice if there is a reason and not an accidental push toward the thing is that the one is better than the other ¹

In the area of farm management Glenn Johnson makes a strong plea for the inclusion of value problems in teaching research and extension. Among his conclusions are: teaching people to manage involves teaching them how to handle values and the theory of management involves at least a sub theory of how managers formulate values and handle value problems ²

The danger of not being conscious of values is pointed out by Eberman

When choices are made at the subconscious level misinformation unsound principles and unjustified assumptions may tip the scales. These possibilities argue for bringing values to the conscious level where they will be open to examination. In the absence of clearly defined values effective appraisal of practices or decisions is impossible ³

Definition

Elaborate definitions of a value abound varied somewhat according to the disciplines which produce them but with considerable agreement as to some of its characteristics ⁴. A value is always important to the person who holds it it is desirable and satisfying it has the ability to develop in a self creative way and it tends to endure. It is a concept of the desirable explicit or implicit which governs our choice of methods modes or goals of action.

Sets of values vary in length and in duplication of specific items. Most lists include health beauty love knowledge happiness and many if not most limit themselves to ethically desirable values.

Unsettled Questions about Values

Among the unsettled questions concerning values are whether only ethical values are true values whether values are fixed or unstable and whether they can be studied and measured as are other phenomena. Below⁵

¹ Ian McCreal *The Art of Making Choices* (Dallas: Southern Methodist University Press 1953) pp. 11-32

Glenn L. Johnson *Value Problems in Farm Management* Paper presented at the Agricultural Economics Society (England) December 1959

³ P. Eberman "The Value practice Dilemma" *Elementary School Journal* Vol. 59 No. 4 (January 1959) pp. 194-195

⁴ Glenn H. Beyer *Housing and Personal Values* Cornell University Agr. Exp. Sta. Memoir 364 1939 p. 3

⁵ pp. 25-26

we mention a classification of values which would make possible the inclusion among true values of those which may not carry approval as being ethically right such as power prestige and success. The fixed and unchanging nature of values is another moot point. It is upheld in the statement that one can distinguish what is truly a human value from what may be nothing more than a custom or folkway, what is truly fundamental and permanent from what is though certainly sound relative to concrete and passing conditions.⁶ Social scientists lean toward the view that values are somewhat unstable and always in the process of change.⁷ The change is relatively slow in the main and may be so slow as to escape notice during the act of changing. For example, the differences in values between grandparents and grandchildren indicate that some of the dominant values of the period when grandma was a girl have gradually given way to other values dominant in the growing up period of her grandchildren.

Also from the field of the social sciences comes the view⁸ that values may be studied and measured. Quantitative measurement is still elusive but expressions such as much more, more and less or forcing choices between paired values tend toward the quantitative.

Origin and Development

The work of anthropologists in studying peoples far from ourselves in distance and development has made clear that values differ in different cultures and that children absorb the values of their own culture. Examples abound of values far different from American ones. Among the Sioux Indians time is not important; there is not even a word for time in their language.⁹ A study of Parisian mothers found that the values of independence and sociability for young children were ranked low.¹⁰ An American business concern in Central America developed a new town in the jungle and provided American type housing with sanitation. The houses were close together and without gardens.

The native workers were slow in appreciating the company's flush toilets and garbage cans but they gave high significance to privacy and plants and flowers.

⁶ R. J. Henle, S. J. "Intellectual Elements in Home Economics Education," *Journal of Home Economics*, Vol. 52, No. 1 (January 1960), p. 9.

Benne, K. D. and Swanson, G. E. "The Problem of Values and the Social Scientist," *Journal of Social Issues*, Vol. VI, No. 4 (1950), p. 3.

⁸ *Journal of Social Issues*, Vol. VI, No. 4 (1950), "Values and the Social Scientist," Entire issue.

⁹ Aleta Brownlee, "The American Indian Child," *Children*, Vol. 5, No. 2 (March April 1958), p. 57.

¹⁰ Celia B. Stendler, "What Kind of Adult Will Your Child Be?" *The New York Times Magazine*, December 12, 1954, p. 46.

around the house . . . In these respects the housing was of a lower standard than that to which they were accustomed ¹¹

The individual gets his values from his group but they do not come as a gift ¹² They come through the act of valuing or prizing and cherishing and through choosing and then through expressing the value in the way one uses his resources and chooses to be among people who share the value

The family's responsibility for values is paramount important though the school and community are in shaping a child's values as he grows older ¹³ Margaret Justin wrote ' Particularly families must develop their abilities to hold fast to abiding values make sound choices and arrive at wise judgments in the light of a sound philosophy of life ' ¹⁴ Leonard Mayo said in regard to spiritual values that the family is not only the best conveyor of values but is the producer of values ¹⁵ Lawrence Frank has been the frequent spokesman for this responsibility ever since he wrote ¹⁶

It is evident that home management is not merely a question of skills and standardized equipment important as they are for the conservation of human energy and time but more a way of life for which the homemaker needs clarification of aims and purposes aspirations and values

A family may express its values in quite commonplace objects as exemplified in a story told by Judge Florence Allen Her ancestors centuries back had embarked on a long trek westward from Holland to England then to New England next to New York State and finally to Ohio All ways they had carried one green and growing thing with them—a rhubarb plant called in those days a pie plant Furniture was discarded on the long journeys but the living plant undoubtedly symbolized to them new creative life based on the old Judge Allen wisely said We are known by what we discard and what we cling to

It is no easy job for the family to build values The difficulty of the task has been compared to that of building science invention economic wealth and war This responsibility is linked to home management because in the sharing of family plans and managerial activities values are

¹¹ E. F. Hoyt Point IV and Families Abroad *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 43 No 1 (January 1951) p 10

¹² Louis E. Rath Values Are Fundamental *Childhood Education* Vol 35 (February 1959) p 246

¹³ William E. Engbreitson Values of Children—How They Are Developed *Childhood Education* Vol 35 (February 1959) pp 259-60

¹⁴ Margaret Justin A Forward Look for Home Economics *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 45 (June 1951) p 419

¹⁵ Leonard W. Mayo Strengthening Ethical and Spiritual Values in Family Life *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 43 (October 1952) pp 613-615

¹⁶ Lawrence K. Frank The Philosophy of Home Management *Proceedings of the Seventh International Management Congress* (1937) pp 5-6

of necessity caught. If all the relatively mature members have a voice in the decisions about the use of family resources they share even more fully in family values through helping to shape those values. A family council is usually cited as a satisfactory device for settling family problems but it is much more than that providing as it does an important activity of the family group through which values become the property of all and differences in values are honestly faced. Much if not most of the material handled by a family council has to do directly or indirectly with the management of family resources. This management then becomes the anvil on which family values are forged.

Classification and Hierarchy

Varied as lists of values are individual ones may be grouped into classes. There are several systems of classification. We shall describe briefly only two with a view to their contribution to understanding and establishing a hierarchy of values. A hierarchy means a scheme of relative rank or importance. If conflicts among values develop as a result of their varied origins such a hierarchy is useful in determining which value will take precedence in a given situation. Without such an order of importance action might be virtually impossible.

This concept of a hierarchy also determines what we emphasize in our individual lives and in our communities.

A civilization which has no appreciation of or love for the beauties of Nature is only a new kind of barbarism. . . opportunities to see wild birds in flight or a wild flower blooming in lonely loveliness grow fewer and fewer because we do not value them enough.¹⁷

Values may be classified as (1) instrumental and intrinsic or as (2) factual and normative. Instrumental values are ways of reaching intrinsic or end values sometimes called goal values. McKee found in home management four instrumental values—planning skills, order and efficiency. He emphasized as a basic intrinsic value of home management the healthy growth of individual persons in their multiple relationships in a home situation.¹⁸

The classification of values as factual or normative¹⁹ brings out the difference between factual values that exist regardless of their level of desirability and the normative that have an ethical basis. The factual

¹⁷ Joseph Wood Krutch, *Look Up!* This Week, February 11, 1960.

¹⁸ William W. McKee, *Values in Home Management*, *Proceedings of Conference on Values and Decision Making in Home Management*, Mich. State Univ. 1955, pp. 9-10.

¹⁹ Henry Margenau, *The Scientific Basis of Value Theory*, in A. H. Maslow, *New Knowledge in Human Values* (New York: Harper and Row, 1959), p. 39.

also called descriptive lend themselves to research and are based on observable preferences and desires of people. The normative are ethical values which carry the idea of ought or right. Thus in America success would be a descriptive value, honesty a normative value. Many feel that the source of normative values is the deep concern of philosophy and religion. The ultimate ground of normative values is rooted in the ultimate ground of being.²⁰

In building a hierarchy of values, consideration of the two types of classification helps somewhat. By definition, intrinsic values rank higher than instrumental ones. Normative values rank higher than some but not all descriptive values. A general guide to higher values is the extent to which they lead away from self-centered satisfactions and wishes.²¹

GOALS

Values held provide the underlying motivation in home management. They must however be made concrete in goals. A goal is more easily defined and understood than a value. For example, the value of well rounded living is relatively vague, while the goal of a family vacation which will implement it is clear-cut.

One of the important shifts in home management as a field of study has been from the emphasis upon skill in using resources to stress upon people and their goals as the focal point of management. This point of view of considering people before resources might result in choosing a family vacation rather than increasing the savings account. Disregard of the people and their values concerned in any phase of home management may defeat the fundamental purposes of management.

The best kind of budget (mathematically speaking) if it is not acceptable to all members of a family group might do more personal harm than one more carelessly planned. The most elaborate of work schedules might fail to encourage desirable attitudes toward work. The most difficult of work and income problems are not problems of economic planning but are problems pertaining to personal growth.²²

Means End Chain of Goals

Just as there is a hierarchy in values directing the general ends or objectives of management, there is rank or order in goals leading from smaller to larger ones.²³

²⁰ W. A. Weisskopf, *Existence and Values*, in Maslow *op cit* p. 109.

²¹ E. J. Urwick, *The Values of Life* (Toronto: University of Toronto Press 1948) p. 3.

²² B. V. Cunningham, *Family Behavior* (Philadelphia: Saunders 1936) p. 216.

²³ H. A. Simon, *Administrative Behavior* (New York: Macmillan 1951) p. 63.

The fact that goals may be dependent for their force on other more distant ends leads to the arrangement of these goals in a hierarchy—each level to be considered as an end relative to the levels below it and as a means relative to the levels above it

In actual life there is seldom a single branching hierarchy but there is more apt to be a tangled web of goals In this chain all purposes or ends are considered goals up to the final one or ones which are probably values These later ends are increasingly vague—a characteristic more common to values than to goals

This concept of a means ends chain of goals culminating in values illustrates the dynamic nature of goals—namely that one goal stems from another and leads into a third For example a goal of a young married couple might be to have a comfortable and attractive home which goal achieved in an apartment might lead to the goal of ownership of their own home That goal achieved might lead further to the goal of improvement of neighborhood conditions There is always some danger of remaining at the level of earlier goals and not progressing to higher ones

Changing of Goals

It is clear that specific goals and even values and their relative importance change from time to time—gradually over a long period as the family life cycle develops or quickly during a crisis An example of a slow change is a family turns from its goal of home ownership to the goal of education as the children grow older A crisis such as illness of the breadwinner leading to great reduction in income may force appraisal of the financial goals of the family which may in turn lead to change For example if a family had been saving toward college education for the children that objective may have to be given up as a family financed project Even if once consciously adopted there is nothing sacred about a goal If it becomes outmoded for a particular group change should be welcomed

Influence of Social Group

Goals of an individual person or family are probably much influenced by those of relatively similar groups in the social environment This was evidenced in a psychological study of expected and desired achievement of college students²¹ Students were stimulated to score higher if they were told they had not scored as high as those of their own educational level

²¹ Leon Festinger "Wish Expectation and Group Standards as Factors Influencing Level of Aspiration" *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology* Vol 37 (1942) pp 184-200

Further evidence on this point comes from a doctoral study of farm household interdependence on farms. The social nature of values as determining farm practices was a hypothesis of this study. The high degree of homogeneity in values (ends) among individual families in low income farm areas deterred individual initiative and aspirations in productive activity.²⁵

However, the acceptance of new goals may to some extent be associated with contact with people of different interests and backgrounds,²⁶ and the resulting awareness of different goals.

Need of Family Acceptance of Realistic Goals

Attention has already been given to the freedom of a family to choose its own goals.¹ Here the point of genuine acceptance of specific goals by all members of a family or group is stressed. Within limits, acceptance of differences is possible, but many family goals call for concerted group effort in order to be achieved.

There is also the danger in a family or group having strong leadership that the goals of the leader may be falsely taken as the goals of the group, yet many actions of the various members must stem from common goals. Or a group may not have enough leadership to recognize that there is variety of goals among its members. For example, the goal of home ownership is possible for most families only if all members are willing to shape their demands upon the family pocketbook accordingly.

Even when the members of a living group are in fundamental agreement on values, they may need to go through much deliberation to select their definite goals. Goals have a way of competing with each other. With knowledge as a family value, shall the goal be four years of a college education for Susan or two years for Susan and two years for Bill, who will be ready for college when Susan would be a junior? Or if the family looks toward security in old age, what level of living in that time shall the goal be?

It is also important for a family to choose realistic goals possible of achievement within a reasonable time. From a piece of research referred to earlier, there is some evidence that a goal realistically chosen has a greater chance of being reached.²⁷ Also if the cost in time, money, or effort

¹ William B. Back, *Farm Household Interdependence on Low Income Farms with Particular Emphasis on Production Decisions: Capital Accumulation and Research Methodology*, Unpublished Ph.D. thesis, Iowa State College, 1952. Mimeographed summary and conclusions.

²⁵ "Personal Influence," *Search*, Vol. 5, No. 5 (May 1960).

²⁶ See p. 11.

²⁷ Festinger, *op. cit.*

required to reach a given goal is unreasonable the goal may not be as satisfying as anticipated

A family must recognize further that daily action may be necessary to reach a relatively long term goal (Incidentally the more specific a goal is the more apt is an individual or group to work toward it) A family planning for home ownership must first face the down payment If that cannot be met it is pointless to consider the further costs of home ownership How much is necessary for a down payment? Do they have that amount or can they save it within a relatively short length of time? If they have no savings at present and see little possibility of setting aside substantial amounts of money in the immediate future the goal of home ownership is unrealistic for them at the present time If however they have all but \$500 necessary for a down payment they may say We can save \$40 a month if Father carries his lunch if Mother plans less expensive meals and if Junior gets a paper route and provides his own spending money and part of his clothes In a year the additional \$500 will be available

General Family Goals

In the development of goals it must be recognized that individuals and groups start from where they are Even though a living group may be newly formed the individuals composing it have been molded by a long line of preceding events There may have been earlier interrelationships among certain members before the group was formed which influence the later development of the group Nothing is completely dropped out of experience and every contact has left its mark

It is very difficult to select any list of family goals for detailed discussion There are only two purposes for attempting such a list first to arouse awareness that they exist and that there are pathways toward their achievement second if possible to present techniques for progressing toward them The second purpose is far more difficult of achievement than the first The list is of necessity an arbitrarily selected one limited to a few rather general goals which seem to be important in family and group living and to be attainable in some degree through such living It in no way attempts to give all goals which might be chosen by all families As long term goals the following are closely related to values They are

- 1 The well rounded development of individual members of the group within their possibilities and limitations
- 2 The development of satisfying relationships within the family or other intimate groups
- 3 The recognition acceptance and appreciation of human differences
- 4 The acceptance of mutual responsibility of family and community

the similarities of the members in needs and interests and their ways of meeting them. If it comes easily and unconsciously people fail to recognize how important it is in most intimate groups. All individuals experience situations in which they get along happily without ever thinking of human interaction but persons differ in their ability to make unconscious adjustment and the same person's success varies according to circumstances.

Rapport in Group Living Rapport consists essentially in a pleasurable and warm feeling of harmony or sympathy between persons and a sense of belonging together. It is a feeling which exists deep below the surface and is difficult to express in words. The expression of the mouth, the glance of the eye, the quality of the voice, the set of the shoulders, the touch on the arm—all these betray rapport or lack of it. The words used in speech are far less indicative of rapport than these more subtle means of communication.

Families and groups in which there is harmony develop, if not a vocabulary of their own, a unique use of language. Nicknames are an example of this, as are special abbreviations and phrases. This language is used only in the group in which it is developed; it is uniquely theirs. For example, the Joneses among themselves speak of asparagus as "sparrow grass" because an elderly neighbor called it that. In another family in which the father disapproved of the habit of drinking colas, the young members always referred to "cokes" as "habits."

The importance of rapport as a cement holding a group together can not be overestimated. If it exists, the group works for a common cause, plans are discussed together and not imposed by any one member, and there is a willingness to share burdens by the entire group. Its significance to a group is akin to that given to personal charm by J. M. Barrie.

If you have it, you don't need to have anything else; and if you don't have it, it doesn't much matter what else you have.³¹ Barrie's statement has a fatalistic sound: either one has charm or one does not. There is a chance, however, that rapport, while equally elusive to define, may, if necessary, be worked toward by conscious techniques.

Shared Experiences There are no sure-fire techniques for achieving rapport. A general preparatory step is developing a sympathetic understanding of people, their feelings and motives. In a particular situation, thinking about the group from the standpoint of each person in it and sharing experiences with the group may be of some help. Some of the difficulties in shared experiences are that it may not be desired—as when teen-agers

³¹ J. M. Barrie, "What Every Woman Knows," *The Plays of J. M. Barrie* (New York: Scribner, 1928), p. 326.

offer an outing with *their own friends* to a family picnic—and that more intimate acquaintance sometimes bring out undesirable facets of a personality not noticeable in more formal contact. It is however the common pathway to rapport.

Opportunities for shared experiences abound in any living situation in which they cannot be avoided. Planning them therefore is limited to seizing natural opportunities for doing pleasurable things together. In family groups birthdays and holidays are special occasions but ordinary times or recreation together give chances for group activity. The special point to be made here about these obvious group activities is that the *management* of them is a way of achieving group harmony. It is not enough to have a picnic together; it is the planning and preparing together which are equally valuable in this subtle process of developing group life. Active experiences are more potent than passive ones in the process. The doing together is a precious possession which the members share in common. One of the great values to a family group of extending hospitality is just this—the chance of preparing for and experiencing together something of mutual interest and talking about it afterward. A child in a group provides a multitude of natural opportunities for happy experiences together.

Free Communication Free communication is a type of shared experience. That includes more than doing things together such as making a garden or washing the family laundry or going on a picnic. Talking things over together is equally a shared experience. A deeper level of understanding comes through talking when not only ideas, plans and events are discussed but also when one's feelings about them are brought into the open. Its achievement is at once a part of self-development and a valuable tool of group adjustment.

Encouraging free communication is not a matter of following definite rules. A genuine friendly interest in people expressed without probing will ordinarily open the channels. A rich inner life, not necessarily proportionate to education, will make communication more meaningful. Habits as well as temperament may be listed as barriers or aids. The habit of saying the conventional thing because it is expected is a barrier to true communication as is also the habit of concealing every possible show of emotion. Adequate means of communication may never have been built up. Not only words are needed but ability to use and interpret gestures, voice tones and a wide range of facial expressions. Emotions so important in free communication are not conveyed through words alone nor even chiefly by means of language.

There is a certain amount of danger in interpreting nonverbal communication. People differ both in degree and manner in which they express themselves without words. On the side of the interpreter there is a

chance of overconfidence in his ability to give meaning to what has not been overtly stated. To illustrate hesitation in speech in a given situation may stem from embarrassment from lack of knowledge from desire to refrain from angry speech. The mere fact of hesitation alone does not tell which is the underlying feeling tone of the act.

Conflict It is however impossible to avoid some conflict in group relationships although it can be consciously avoided to a certain extent. Development of observation along with reflection is a help in forestalling conflict. Practice in observation even through games and reading detective stories is of some value. In reflection it is important to realize and accept the fact that everyone is not like oneself in all his motives and thinking processes and his reactions although we are prone to assume these likenesses. Study of the behavioral sciences and varied experiences with many types of people lead to deeper understanding of those with whom one comes in contact and hence to a better chance of sensing conflict before it actually occurs.

The level at which conflict is resolved is related to the achievement of harmonious relationships. Different possible solutions of a conflict not only determine the success of the situation in which it occurs but also the effect of that incident upon continuing relationships. Six possible kinds of solutions representing at least three levels of satisfaction will be discussed in connection with decision making. Keenness in sensing problems and free communication within the group, two methods of avoiding conflict are at one and the same time helpful in building rapport.

ACCEPTANCE OF DIFFERENCES

This particular goal is both a separate objective and a means of achieving the goals of well rounded development of the individual and the development of satisfying relationships. It is closely related to tolerance which is a value in itself.

There are roughly three possible attitudes toward differences—negative, neutral and positive. With negative attitudes an individual may dislike differences to the point that he shuns the person who is different or if in a position of authority he may attempt to enforce conformity upon the person. Thus a college student may be thought peculiar and consequently shunned if he prefers reading an interesting book to going to a college basketball game. If he lives in a social group considerable pressure may be brought to bear upon him to go to the game as the normal line of action. With a neutral attitude there is a tolerance of differences though not a welcoming of them. In the example given above the student may not be ostracized or urged to go with the crowd but his

group may be far from proud of his being different. Many times taking this neutral attitude is as far as one can go in accepting differences. The positive attitude proceeds a step further and develops appreciation of differences as a means of enriching life. To proceed further with the foregoing example, the group may appreciate how valuable this student's fund of accurate information is to them. Most persons are conscious of the value to the group of the person who is different because of unusual artistic ability or training. They are less likely to appreciate the fact that an individual with a foreign background or one from an isolated community may equally enrich group experience through sharing his special mode of life. Differences of people are assets. [accepting differences] implies fundamentally that we accept the gifts that each one brings to the common wealth and refrain from any attempt to mold everyone after a single image, no matter how fine that image may be.³²

It must be realized that not all human differences are equally enriching. Some come from unsocial traits such as selfishness, lack of consideration for others, and nonacceptance of responsibility. It is a little difficult to think of learning to appreciate them. Acceptance or tolerance is as far as most of us can go, but most thoughtful people accept the imperfect—the frailties and defects in ourselves as well as in those we love.³³

ACCEPTANCE OF FAMILY COMMUNITY RESPONSIBILITY

Hospitality. The last of the family goals to be discussed is the development of mutual responsibility between the family and the community. On the level of person to person it may mean offering hospitality. The purpose of entertaining people in one's own home dictates what phases of hospitality will be emphasized. If the purpose is to relate the group or family to the community, the technical skills connected with entertainment will not be stressed. Otherwise, the shape of the sandwiches, the texture of the cake frosting, the arrangement of the flowers become ends and not means. As a result of this technical emphasis, the hostess may become so fatigued in preparation that she cannot enjoy the social event when it finally arrives. Middle of the night culinary efforts do not make for sparkling hostesses the next day, nor does overconcern for the serving of food during a social gathering. Regardless of whether or not there is overemphasis on skills, there is a limit to the amount of hospitality that can be offered by any person or group. Too much entertaining will encroach upon student or family time and will also break into that feeling of intimacy which comes only when the group living together is alone.

³² Margaret M. Rich, *The Human Thing to Do* (New York: Woman's Press, 1932).

³³ Mary Ellen Chase, *The Lovely Ambition* (New York: Norton, 1960), p. 186.

Social Responsibility Other choices to be made in respect to hospitality include types of guests and types of entertainment. Again if hospitality is looked upon as a means of relating the group to the community then different ages, sexes, and interests may well be represented among the guests. In college houses opportunities abound for making contacts with town residents as well as faculty members and with visitors from outside the college. Different types of entertainment may be offered with emphasis on the simple and informal for reasons indicated in the preceding paragraph. To the end that hospitality may aid in self-development one will have to minimize the mechanics of entertaining and be chiefly concerned with the persons who are being entertained.

Despite the fact that it sounds paradoxical and seems like the mechanizing of what should be spontaneous, students may be helped with the technique of welcoming guests and making them feel at home. Friendly talk cannot be stereotyped, but such simple things as well worded introductions and the practice of having student hostesses exchange at least a sentence with each guest promote informal chat. It is self-evident that if hospitality springs from a genuine desire to share the life of the group with others, techniques are relatively unimportant.

There is a much more impersonal but equally vital relationship between the family and the community than giving and receiving hospitality. It is a reciprocal relationship—that is, acceptance of each for responsibility to the other. The community, however, feels a stronger responsibility for families having few resources of their own than for those with many. Nevertheless, since this book is concerned with home management, only the relationship of the family toward the community will be stressed. It will be shown in the chapters on the use of family resources that the way a family makes use of its time, energy, and money shows whether or not it accepts this responsibility. It is through the allocation of these resources that a family consciously or unconsciously works toward this goal. Sensing the needs of the community is a preliminary step, and then showing an active concern in meeting needs is a second step.

STANDARDS

Although it is relatively simple to relate *values* and *goals* to each other, it is less easy to relate *standards* to the other two. (See Figure 2-1.) Though standards stem from values, the line of relationship may be difficult to trace.

There are standards that apply to a single situation or area, such as a standard of food or dress or conduct. These are much more specific than either goals or values. There is also the combination of many specific standards known as the standard of living. Standards set the limits one



*IT'S CALLED 'IRONIN' IT'S SOMETHIN' YA
GOTTA DO IF WRINKLES MAKE YA NERVOUS *

will accept in working toward a goal. We can only guess at another person's values and goals unless they are told to us, but a person's standards are there to be observed. Herein may lie the great power of standards to influence our lives.

Most standards related to home management may be defined as mental pictures of what is considered essential and necessary to make life tolerable. If achieved, satisfaction results; if not achieved, there is discomfort. Even if there is a lack of ability or skill to reach a standard, as long as there is dissatisfaction in not reaching it, it remains a standard. For example, one may be unhappy over her lack of artistic skill in arranging flowers. Standards may be higher than the actual level of achievement, but usually not a great deal higher. A college student shampooes her hair regularly

once a week and occasionally an extra time. She may vaguely think her hair would look better if shampooed regularly twice a week, but as long as the feeling is vague, it is scarcely a standard. It is only when a mental picture is strong enough either to compel action or to cause discomfort and unrest if action cannot take place that it may be called a standard.

There is no external law compelling a homemaker to carry out the processes she performs or to dictate her manner of performance. It is the inner conviction that certain things must be done and that they must be done in a way acceptable to the individual and her group which dictates the procedure of the individual. Standards then have an ethical tone and carry with them the feeling of what is right and proper.

Classification

In relation to home management standards vary depending upon the values held by a family or group. Upon the basis of values they can be classified as conventional or flexible. If such values as social acceptance and perfectionism are highly regarded from these values will stem the goal of reaching conventionally accepted standards. Such standards are fixed at any given point in time and place. If on the other hand such values as comfort, a friendliness within the group, and balance in the use of resources are dominant from these values will more likely stem standards to fit a given situation—that is, flexible standards. In the first mentioned case standards are fixed and the person (if necessary and possible) changes to meet them. In the second case the focus is on the persons involved and standards are changed to fit the human situation. Then standards become flexible. The cost in money, time, or effort is more often recognized in the case of flexible standards than of conventional ones.

CONVENTIONAL

Conventional standards are those that are traditional in and are accepted by the community at large or by a social group within it. An example of such a standard in the household is dusting furniture every day. Approximately half of the homemakers in a recent study did so on the day previous to the interview.²⁴ If an unexpected visitor arrives in a home and there is dust visible, the homemaker is apt to say apologetically, "I didn't dust today."

It is well to remember that what are commonly called "high" standards as opposed to "low" are in the main only conventional standards rather

²⁴ Barbara J. McCandless, *Kinds of Tasks Performed and Time Used in Day to Day Care of the House*. M. S. Thesis, Cornell University, June 1939, p. 6.

than standards approaching a theoretical perfection. In many cases they do require a larger amount of effort than low standards and in that sense are high. To illustrate, high standard of cleanliness for table silver really means conventional absence of tarnish or dark color. Yet in some patterns of tableware we consciously choose the dark color of oxidized silver. There is therefore nothing inherently high or low in dark color of silver. On the other hand, a high standard of cleanliness in dishwashing means a relative absence of foreign material and bacteria. Such absence approaches the theoretical perfection of complete absence or sterilization. This type of high standard is more truly high.

FLEXIBLE

Flexible standards at the time of their adoption are not widely accepted by the community. They are however consciously adopted to suit a given situation. The couplet *Standards*³⁵ figuratively expresses this relationship.

White is the skimming gull on the somber green of the fir trees
Black is the soaring gull on a snowy glimmer of cloud

The same bird against different backgrounds appears to be of different colors. Similarly the same standard in different situations appears suitable or unsuitable. Thus the conventional standard of ironed bed sheets may be a suitable one for the unhurried homemaker and a very unsuitable one for the mother of three young children who owns no ironer and has no household help. A flexible standard in relation to dusting furniture would be dusting only the pieces of furniture or even parts of pieces that show dust. Such a flexible standard is usually adopted because of a shortage of time or strength to devote to the task.

Changing Standards

At the time of adoption of a flexible standard there will be a certain amount of disapproval. As a student once remarked of a flexible standard: "Anyone can let down." However it may gain ground very quickly in a period of rapid social change. Evidence of this in relation to food standards can be found in any issue of current women's magazines. The present emphasis on quickly prepared and easily served meals even for guests shows the increasing conventionality of what were formerly flexible standards. The standard of homemade products rather than commercial ones

³⁵ C. W. Stork. *Standards* in Jessie B. Rittenhouse, ed. *The Third Book of Modern Verse* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1927), p. 130.

changed phenomenally in only seven years among North Central farm families as witnessed by the increased use of the latter ³¹

Product

Percentage of families baking at home

	1948	1955
Bread	56	39
Rolls	64	47
Pie	95	85
Cake	90	85
Cookies	83	67

The increase of convenience foods such as cake and cookie mixes canned and frozen prepared dishes and canned baby foods has been from a very minor or unknown quantity in 1938 to a two billion dollar business collectively in 1955 ³²

Criteria for Choosing Conventional or Flexible Standards

Whether to choose a flexible standard consciously over a conventional one or to retain the conventional one depends upon the answers to certain questions. It is true however that standards tend to remain fixed because of the power of habit and it is unsettling to change too many at a time. The questions are

- 1 What does this standard cost in time effort money?
- 2 How did the standard originate? Does it still serve a purpose?
- 3 What is the effect on other people of maintaining this standard?
- 4 How far can one accept flexible standards in this area?
- 5 How does this standard relate to a fundamental value?

1 COST

Considering the cost of a standard is of course the rational approach in contemplating a change. However answers to the other questions raised may tip the scales against the rational approach.

2 ORIGIN OF STANDARD

In breaking away from conventional standards it may be helpful first to think of the general origin of standards. It is generally conceded that all standards are culture products that they grow up in group life and are

³¹ Marguerite C. Burk, *Pounds and Percentages in Food The Yearbook of Agriculture* U S Dept of Agriculture Washington D C p 599

³² *Ibid* p 590

passed on through the group. It follows then that they vary from group to group, from place to place, and from time to time. The housekeeping ways of colonial women were not the housekeeping ways of the present generation of homemakers; the housekeeping ways of Chinese women are not the housekeeping ways of American women.

The origin of a specific standard is often very difficult to trace. Why, for example, is the salad conventionally placed at the left when it is eaten with the fork held in the right hand? It is somewhat helpful to know that most standards have probably been adopted because of certain forces—their prestige value, their value for physical survival, their accord with group concepts of welfare, or some combination of the three.

These forces account for the origin of standards within a group. They are or seem reasonable to the group at the time of their adoption. They do not necessarily seem reasonable to other groups, except perhaps those standards based on physical survival. Most Americans would unhesitatingly accept a health basis for a standard as reasonable. Our readers would be less in agreement as to the reasonableness of certain household standards among preliterate peoples—for example, definite ways of kindling fires or set methods of preparing food as a part of their worship.

3 EFFECT ON PEOPLE CONCERNED

Occasionally a family may wish to move in the direction of flexible standards, either because of any of the various factors making for change in habits or because of a realization that present standards are adversely affecting family life. A house may be too clean, meals may be too punctual, or table service may be too careful for human beings to feel comfortable. There may be plenty of time and energy to devote to such demanding standards, and yet the family may need the comfortable disarray of lived-in rooms and the comfortable carelessness of not quite perfect meals.

4 QUALITY AND SOCIAL ACCEPTABILITY OF STANDARD

In balancing flexible against conventional standards, questions of quality arise, along with keying in with the community as against being individual. A reverence for quality makes people fearful of adopting new standards even when they are definitely less consuming of time and effort. The question immediately arises: will the new method yield as good a product? The passion for perfection, which drives men onward in spiritual and ethical matters, is operative in the mechanical matters of life as well; there is a genuine satisfaction in work well done. The instinct of workmanship, whether one takes the phrase literally or not, is a

drive toward excellence in household as in other tasks. Both industrial efficiency and household efficiency recognize the prior claim of quality.

A conventional standard is one acceptable to a relatively large social group and conformity within limits is essential for a harmonious society. One of the goals of education is to acquaint the young with more widely accepted standards than they previously have had an opportunity of seeing. Though there is some disagreement as to what constitutes conventional standards in relation to some aspects of living, in others they are well established. An example of an accepted conventional standard is the salad as a part of a lunch or dinner. A more variable standard is the orderliness of a bedroom.

In stressing conventional standards in home economics courses one should realize at the outset that many perhaps most of them have been adopted unconsciously. They represent the customs and traditions of the faculty and of the geographical area. Nevertheless they also represent in part conscious and probably rational concepts such as the belief that students should be familiar with standards that are conventionally acceptable and with standards that are relatively cosmopolitan. It is one thing to deviate from a conventional standard from choice and another to deviate because of ignorance and only those who know accepted standards have the ability to choose.

Examples abound of the persistence of this question and also of its extreme timeliness. A generation ago Emily Newell Blair raised the issue³⁸

'Tell me she said passionately tell me frankly have I kept up in the essentials. It is very difficult to know what is important enough to hold on to and what isn't. You see when you live as you have been accustomed to your standard is set for you. You don't know why you do things certain ways and you don't ask why. But I must decide for myself on each separate thing I do whether it is essential and whether I had better give it up and you'll be surprised to know how difficult this deciding is. Take for instance little things like clearing the table for dessert. I decide it's not essential so put the dessert on the table. Then Jim says Why go into the other room? and so we eat at the little kitchen table and then I say Why use a cloth that makes laundry? and finally Jim comes to the table without his collar. There you are. Just where should I draw the line?

Very recent periodicals raise the same question in such articles as 'When is Casual Too Casual?'³⁹ and 'Gracious Living—Still Important?'⁴⁰

On the side of individuality comes the flexible standard. A friend of

³⁸ Emily Newell Blair, 'Why We Live Beyond Our Means', *Forum*, Vol. 77 (June 1927), pp. 892-899.

³⁹ Dawn Crowell Norman, 'When Is Casual Too Casual?', *Ladies Home Journal* LXXVII No. 6 (June 1960), pp. 64-65.

⁴⁰ Florence Le Ganke, 'Gracious Living—Still Important?', *Journal of Home Economics* Vol. 49 No. 1 (January 1957), pp. 26-27.

one of the authors made an interesting comment upon a popular book⁴¹ which advocates flexible standards. This friend said that it encouraged its readers to do things she had been doing for years but had been ashamed to admit. In a letter a former student of the other author gave some side lights on the flexibility of her standards. She is the happy mother of four children under six years of age, has no household assistance, and is helping her husband with the clerical part of his graduate work. She wrote:

I sprinkle only the shirts and hankies, and very lightly at that. As for cleaning—remember I am near sighted. I mop the kitchen floor only when my feet start sticking to it. I am convinced that housework like any other job calls for a philosophy or a mental attitude.

5. RELATIONSHIP TO VALUES HELD

The strongest consideration in choosing between a flexible and a conventional standard is its relationship to values held by the chooser. For example, having fresh flowers in the living room, even when they are easily obtained, requires a fair amount of time and effort. When they are not available in a garden, money is also required. Yet having flowers around may stem from the value of beauty and perhaps from the value of creativity in selecting and arranging them. If in a household having flowers in the living room represented a conventional standard, changing to a small green plant might not be as satisfactory a way of expressing the values of beauty and creativity, especially the latter.

STANDARD OF LIVING

In the cluster of concepts in the motivation underlying decisions—values, goals, and standards—there is a special all-pervasive integrated standard, the standard of living. It consists of a pattern of commodities, services, and satisfactions. A person considers this pattern in the same way that he looks upon an individual standard: that is, as so essential he will struggle to get or keep it or, if unable to do so, will feel discomfort. Kyrk points out that *essential* in this usage means "goods most desired in the sense that they will be first secured and last given up."⁴² This definition differs rather widely from the interpretation of the standard of living as the total commodities and services an individual or family *has* or *possesses*. The latter concept may more accurately be called the level of consumption.

Campbell agrees with the above differentiation between standard of living

⁴¹ Russel and Mary Wright, *Guide to Easier Living* (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1950).

⁴² Hazel Kyrk, *Economic Problems of the Family* (New York: Harper and Row, 1933), p. 373.

ing and level of consumption. However she sees the term *standard of living* as having several facets. Her definition of the term *acceptable standard of living* coincides very closely with the above definition and is worth repeating. This definition of standard of living has to do not with things as such but with an attitude of mind toward things. Most people have a sense more or less conscious of the material things and services which it is fit and proper for them to have.⁴³ She goes on to say: A family's sense of what is fit and proper is not a remote ideal. The little boy may dream of owning an airplane but what he pesters his family or writes Santa Claus for is a bicycle such as his friends up the street have and he feels he ought to have too.⁴⁴

Test for Items in Standard of Living

Since there is an ever widening number of wants suggested through education, observation of others, advertising and the like, it is not unusual for an individual or family to consider essential a number of commodities and services which they do not have. On the other hand, it is possible that they may actually have more goods and services than they consider essential, in which case they would be fairly willing to give up some of them. Once a person becomes accustomed to an item, however, he will probably feel that it is essential to him. As soon as he does, he will exert some effort to procure it or will feel discomfort if it is unattainable. This is the real test of whether or not a commodity or a service is a part of one's standard of living.

This standard of living, or inner conviction of what is important, may include something as tangible as a fur coat or as intangible as security. In relation to clothing, one's standard does not usually specify a particular dress or suit as essential, but it is stated more generally as having sufficient clothes of the kinds needed to be suitably dressed in the customary situations.

Various people will consider very different things important, and for this reason widely differing standards of living exist. We shall first contrast two major standards which differ fundamentally in the selection of commodities and services. In the first, the conventional American standard, selection is based on prestige, on the importance of having and doing what others do, or in other words, on the necessity of keeping up with the Joneses. The second and less common standard includes goods and services chosen by the individual as important regardless of whether or not others consider them so. This may be called the individual standard.

⁴³ Persia Campbell, *The Consumer Interest* (New York: Harper and Row, 1949).

p. 14.

⁴⁴ *Ibid.* p. 15.

Conventional American Standard

Although most people like to feel that they are different from all others their departures from group practices are usually within rather narrow limits since there is the danger of being thought odd if one is too unlike others. For this reason group standards fall into a pattern which is very visible to an outsider. A group of college students appears to the casual observer like a chorus uniformed in sweaters skirts and loafers but to one of the group it is apparent that Sue has an unusual color scheme and that Jan's skirt is of a new and expensive material that will not crush.

Because standards develop in group life most conventional standards of living are taken for granted and seem completely logical to the members of the group in which they occur. However what is conventional in one group may not be conventional in a second one and thus may seem irrational to members of the latter group. To a college student at one time it was the thing to do to buy a pair of saddle shoes and try to make them look old before wearing them in public while this custom appeared foolish to older people.

The present American standard of living has certain characteristics some admired and some adversely criticized. It has been described as follows:⁴³

This pattern which we can label "living well" begins with a single family house of some six or seven rooms on a small but neat plot of suburban land. In it live a mature but perpetually youthful couple with their two (recently three) small children. They own their home and maintain it by hobby labor with garden tools and paint brushes. There may be a weekly cleaning woman but no full time servant. They own a small and new automobile a refrigerator a television set and a clothes washing machine. Many have a dishwasher and a room air conditioner. They dress in stylish ready-made clothes. They take a two-week vacation in the country every year. They watch the TV (sic) a couple of hours every evening when not at the movies or visiting neighbors for a game of scrabble. They read a daily newspaper a weekly news magazine and a monthly women's magazine but not many books. They are clean and sanitary beyond the dreams of a Dutch housewife and eat a wholesome diet that in recent years has become far more interesting as garlic and spices have lost their immigrant lower class connotations.

The great emphasis in the American standard of living on comfort and material well being on technology newness and the cult of obsolescence⁴⁴ and on security has produced such criticisms as the humorous one. Too

⁴³ Joseph A. Kahl *The American Glass Structure* (New York: Rinehart, 1957) p. 109.

⁴⁴ Vance Packard *The Waste Makers* (New York: McKay, 1960).

many of us have thousand dollar kitchens and ten dollar libraries ⁴⁷ There are also more serious comments [the trouble is that the American people] have such a clear image of the good and easy life that nobody even debates it It is based on the assumption that the production and consumption or enjoyment of material things guaranteed by the Government is in itself the good and easy life ⁴⁸ What we must adjust is the relation between technical and human values We must find new adventures of the spirit to replace the urge toward material newness ⁴⁹

EMULATION

Standards of living evolve because they increase the chances of a group for physical survival Expenditures for sanitation in the home for safety and for precautions in the care of communicable diseases exemplify such origin The theory of emulation however is also a widely accepted explanation of the way standards of living evolve Veblen's theory of pecuniary emulation that persons tend to imitate and accept standards from those just above them in economic status is widely accepted If there is too great a gulf in economic status there is less tendency to imitate It does not occur to the average man to want both a town and a country home but he would probably like a better home than he now occupies

Hoyt has enlarged the concept of emulation to include not only money or pecuniary emulation but also the emulation of fashion and good taste We may imitate certain things because they are costly or because they are valued by those who are wealthy others because they are new or fashionable and still others because they have been adopted by people of good taste

It must be recognized that whether the results of emulation are good or bad depends partly upon what one chooses to imitate If a family donates to charities because others do the results are at least socially desirable and eventually may be an aid to the family in achieving balanced living If on the other hand a student tries to appear as if her allowance is as great as her roommate's never refusing to go to a movie or to buy a coke though she knows she should spend her money on a dental check up the results are harmful It should also be recognized that a resource used emulating others is no longer available for a desire which is purely individual

Some of the pressure of keeping up with conventional standards was

⁴⁷ The Royal Bank in Canada—*Monthly Letter* (November 1955)

⁴⁸ James Reston in *The New York Times* February 16 1958 Editorial page

⁴⁹ Roger Burlingame "The Sixties Coming up in Technology" *Saturday Review* (January 9 1960) p. 11

expressed in a popular article "We Can't Live on \$25 000 a Year"⁵⁰ This family lived in an area of families more wealthy than themselves and the husband was in a business where clothes manners and gracious living were an essential part

Individual Standard

The individual standard of living as contrasted with the conventional is highly selective. It corresponds to what was called earlier the flexible standard. The family who follows it may in some instances hold as important the same articles and customs as do families living conventionally but for very different reasons. The conventional family may do something because others do but the family with the selective standard will base choices on their own needs and interests. For instance it has been conventional in middle-class homes to have an out door fireplace whether or not anyone in the family cooked out. A family with an individual basis for their standards would have one only if the family was genuinely interested in out door cookery. Under a selective standard people achieve individuality in fundamental choices as well as in superficial things. A woman with a medium income who spends little on her clothes so that a French teacher can be employed for her children has made a fundamental choice. Obviously one person's individual choices may differ widely from another's. The woman just mentioned had considered important a service which most of her friends would have called a luxury. She however was willing to simplify another aspect of her life in order to make the employment of the French tutor possible.

Though all individual standards are selective the selectivity may (1) isolate and emphasize one or a few items and simplify others to achieve the desired ones or (2) result in the simplification of all elements of living. By simplification the authors here mean emphasis upon the nonmaterial and the nonluxurious. An example of the simplification of one aspect of living has been given above. Another illustration showing different degrees of simplification might be the selection of a home. It is conventional to buy a new small home in a newly developed area rather than finding a larger old house at the same or lower cost that might be more suitable for a given family.

THE SIMPLE STANDARD

It is very difficult for most Americans to conceive of choosing the simple standard of living since our conventional standard is both material

⁵⁰ (As told to) Betty Hannah Hoffman "We Can't Live on \$25 000 a Year" *Ladies Home Journal* (February 1958) pp. 48 133 135

and luxurious. However, as more demands are made upon resources, the necessity of simplifying some aspects of living in order to include others gains recognition. For example, one family may eat very simply during the week in order to afford a conventional meal of broiled steak with all the fixings for week end guests. A more courageous family may serve their guests an attractive though simple meal of glazed ham loaf, a vegetable, a tossed salad, French bread, and a fruit dessert. Other family meals would then not be limited and the emphasis would be placed upon hospitality rather than upon the food.

The simple standard of living in which all elements of living are simplified is admittedly difficult to achieve. As Wagner stated, "The spirit of simplicity is not an inherited gift but the result of a laborious conflict. Plain living like high thinking is simplification."¹ Simple standards of living imply a social goal of a different import from the one that material display implies. They stress religion, economic security, or ask merely for enough economic goods to free an individual to express his talents. All deviations from the conventional do not result from a person's choosing the simple standard; some result from ignorance. M. Simkovitch has expressed this: "The simplicity of ignorance . . . and the simplicity of indifference to purely external standards are two very different things. One is at the beginning and the other at the end of a long chain of experiences."

The simple standard has been adopted by religious groups who feel that it is the best preparation for immortal life, by economists such as Tolstoy who thought the manner of peasant life essential to the elimination of society's ills, and by individuals like Henry Thoreau who found the struggle for material things above bare essentials not worth the effort. On the whole, the people who stress simplicity are of more than average intelligence and have comparatively small financial means, the latter perhaps because they feel life is too short to spend in accumulating wealth. It should be noted that where a group chooses the simple standard as did the nineteenth century literary group which established Brook Farm, the simple standard becomes a conventional standard for members of that group.

The question may arise: Are the simple standard and poverty the same? For two reasons the answer is No. First, the simple standard includes adequate material goods; poverty does not. Secondly, the simple standard is a result of choice and poverty may be beyond one's control. Of two actual families, each with exactly the same material goods, one might be an example of the simple standard, happy and content with

¹ Charles Wagner, *The Simple Life* (New York: Doubleday, 1901), p. 111.

² Mary Simkovitch, *The City Worker's Home in America* (New York: Macmillan, 1917), p. 32.

what it had chosen the other unhappy because it did not have more Wagner comments further — No class has the prerogative of simplicity no dress however humble in appearance is its unflinching badge Under all the forms in which life vests itself in all social positions at the top as at the bottom of the ladder there are people who live simply and others who do not *Simplicity is a state of mind*

This standard represents an attempt to overcome the factors which complicate and disturb our social life and which Wagner summarizes as *The confusion of the secondary with the essential* This is indeed the basis of individual choice What is essential?

There are those who will say that the simple standard of living is out of step with progress and that it ignores the aesthetic side of life Both of these criticisms are invalid The emphasis upon individual material consumption may actually deter the development of socially produced measures of progress such as education and health ⁴ A high material standard of living with ever increasing wants does not in itself indicate great progress of a culture or a people Furthermore for those who are willing to look simple things have beauty in themselves Simplicity is not synonymous with ugliness nor is ornateness synonymous with beauty

Kahlil Gibran expresses the essence of the simple standard in his poetic discussion of houses ⁵³

And tell me people of Orphilese what have you in these
houses? And what is it you guard with fastened doors?
Have you peace the quiet urge that reveals your power?
Have you remembrances the glimmering arches that span
the summits of the mind?
Have you beauty that leads the heart from things fashioned
of wood and stone to the holy mountain?
Tell me have you these in your houses
Or have you only comfort and the lure for comfort that
stealthy thing that enters the house a guest and then
becomes a host and then a master?
Ay and it becomes a tyrant and with hook and scourge
makes puppets of your larger desires

Simple Standard in Conventional Surroundings A case study⁵⁴ of a well liked faculty family at a small Midwestern college gives an interesting

⁵³ Wagner *op cit* pp 12-17

⁵⁴ John K. Galbraith *The Affluent Society* (Boston Houghton 1958)

⁵⁵ Reprinted from Kahlil Gibran *The Prophet* by permission of Alfred A. Knopf Inc. Copyright 1973 by Kahlil Gibran Renewal copyright 1951 by Administrators C.T.A. of Kahlil Gibran Estate and Mary G. Gibran pp 33-39

⁵⁶ Elizabeth Hoyt M. G. Reid J. L. McConnell and J. M. Hooks *American Income and Its Use* (New York Harper and Row 1954) p 63

description of this type of standard. Their income was close to the mean for the United States. Their expenditures, however, differed significantly from average American expenditures. They spent only three fifths as much as the average for food, drink, tobacco, and clothing, and also slightly less than average on recreation. They spent about the same for housing, equipment, and operation.

By far the greatest difference between the Jacobs family expenditures and typical American expenditures is in respect to gifts and contributions. This is the item in the American culture where there are fewest standards and the least influence of convention; this is the part of spending which each family or single person in the United States is freest to carry out without comment from the community. The Jacobs family shows here its individuality and the nature of its individuality by giving a percentage many times greater than the average.⁵⁷

This is the way they live.⁵⁸

Both Mr. and Mrs. Jacobs are aware of the power of convention, but they try not to be greatly influenced by it. By emulation, or the desire to keep up with or surpass their neighbors, they are influenced almost not at all. It is easier for them to try to make independent and creative decisions because they grew up feeling secure and have continued to feel secure. Thus they are not tempted as are many less fortunate people to display an expensive way of life to give them a sense of security. The ideals that dominate the parents have been before the children all their lives, and the children take them as a matter of course.

The family is a busy one. Much of Mr. Jacobs' time, which is not required by his profession, is given to writing and occasionally to speaking. He gardens in the spring, and he likes to make small repairs about the house. Mrs. Jacobs has the major labor-saving aids, including an automatic washer, and as she is an efficient woman, and her cooking is simple, regular housework, including sewing and mending, does not take more than a third of her time. On her, however, falls the chief responsibility for the family's guests, and of these one to six or seven a week come to her table. She gives herself to various good causes in the community: visits the sick and the aged, and helps her husband with some of his writing. They have a good deal of correspondence with former students. Her part of the gardening is the spring bulbs, which yield many flowers for the home and for neighbors.

The Jacobses go frequently to one of the neighboring state parks. All of them are familiar with names and habits of local trees, plants, and birds. They are good walkers, and even in winter they get out almost every week, either individually or together.

The expenditures of the family are discussed with the children. Thus the children grew up with the feeling that they themselves were making their own pattern of life; it was not something to which their parents made them conform.

⁵⁷ *Ibid.* p. 75.

⁵⁸ *Ibid.* pp. 66-69.

When a new thing is wanted the question is not so much Can we afford it? as Even if we can afford it are there are other uses for the money which might be better?

In the case of food expenditures the members of the family know that they can live on the cheapest foods no matter how unconventional their meals as long as they meet requirements for health. They recognize that they might work out a food budget for less than what they really spend even though this is relatively small. Two meals a day are largely of cereals or sandwiches soup and milk with whatever fruit happens to be cheapest at the time. Mrs. Jacobs says they undoubtedly have the largest oatmeal bill in the city. The third meal is conventional partly because it is the meal on which they chiefly depend for protein and partly because they want at all times to be hospitable to guests. Guests are an important part of the living of this family and are not only planned for but any member of the family feels free at any time to bring another person to the table.

Since few houses are for rent in the small city where the Jacobses live they have little choice. They live in a six room house rather old on the edge of the city. The house has three bedrooms so a guest room is always available. The family eats in one end of the living room so as to have a separate room for a study and a retreat or quiet place.

In another family a Do-It Yourself Family Tour of Europe⁹ was made possible because the members simplified some aspects of their daily living ahead of time and accepted a simplified itinerary and mode of travel.

I startled my family with the question How would you like to take a trip to Europe two summers from now? When alternate enthusiasm and sarcasm ceased I outlined the facts figures and general itinerary I had been mentally hatching for some time thus:

If you are willing to postpone buying a new car if you are willing to travel tourist class and if we all work so that we can save about \$135 each month we can do it and live in luxury over there. It will be our last chance before Jim goes to college or if we ever want to make the trip together. Six weeks will do providing we avoid the typical American rush routine of five big cities in five countries. I propose to concentrate on two small countries hire a car and above all take time to enjoy the rural areas.

There are other ways of making a trip to Europe undoubtedly easier ways and probably better ways if time and money are no object. But this is our trip designed for us.

A third example of the simple standard is found in Living High on a Low Income¹⁰ an article in which the author was surprised to find that

⁹ Olivia Fox. A Do It Yourself Family Tour of Europe. *The New York Times* Resort Section July 17, 1935.

¹⁰ Katherine Crosby MacInnis. Living High on a Low Income. *Harpers Magazine* Vol. 903 (August 1931) pp. 54-58.

she and her husband were classed as poor because they had less than \$2000 a year She said

Of course plenty of people scrimp along on next to nothing—it is being done every day in some of our best families The trick is to find a way to live on a small income without feeling unduly pinched Our system if you can call it that has worked itself out through the years and is quite painless It is really a matter of living to scale with one's basic income

The MacInnises owned their own home and though it did not have a good address it had a lovely view! Mrs MacInnis admitted that clothes are a major problem in the lower brackets

A man can always look well in his good undated suit but for a woman it can be tough I find being from Boston helps for there we females never took our clothes too seriously and learned to make the hat outwear us Not for one moment would I condone much less advocate low bracket incomes We could move up a bracket with no regret whatsoever right now But our happiness is independent on it We aren't poor and if we aren't rich—well I wouldn't be surprised if some of the upper bracketeers would like to be in our financially carefree shoes this very minute

Simple Standard in Isolation Another pertinent example is found in Louise Dickinson Rich's *We Took to the Woods* The author who was enjoying year round primitive living in the Maine woods vividly analyzed her reactions to her simple standard of living⁴¹

Is it worth while? is not a question that I think to ask myself when I am out in the middle of B Pond watching the gulls inscribe their white scrolls against the sky I don't ask it when I see a deer drinking at Long Pool or hear a loon laugh or when I compare Rufus with other children of his age and discover that he is two inches taller and five pounds heavier than most of them and that he doesn't enter rooms with a piercing shriek of It's Superman! I don't ask it when I get a check for a story or find that my \$1.98 mail order bathing suit looks much nicer than the \$15.00 model I saw on a woman up at the hotel—or does it only seem that way because I'm browner and thinner and can swim better than that woman? I don't ask it when friends have such a good time with us that they hate to leave as much as we hate to see them go or when we all sit on the porch in the evening with our feet on the rail and watch the tide of the dusk rise from the valleys up the hills and across the sky

It amounts to this Is it worth while to live like this? is a question that I never ask myself under fair conditions. I ask it only when exasperation or discomfort or exhaustion pre-determine NO as an answer That's about ten times a year On the other three hundred and fifty five days of the year I don't question anything Happy people aren't given to soul searching I find

⁴¹ Louise Dickinson Rich *We Took to the Woods* (Philadelphia Lippincott 1942)
pp 318-320

Here I dare to be myself I don't see why it should ever again be important to me what I wear or whether I have read the latest book or seen the latest play or know the newest catch word I don't see why I should ever care again what people think of me It seems silly now but those things were once important I don't see why it should ever matter to me again who does or does not speak to me who does or does not have more money than I have Those things used to matter though because I had no identity of my own I had nothing to go by but the standards someone else had set up To define freedom for which men and women and children are dying all over the world in terms of indifference to clothes and social contacts and popular attitudes seems so trivial and irresponsible a thing to do that I am ashamed of it as of gross impertinence but that is what living here adds up to for me I am free

These examples show that while the simple standard may be achieved among those who live either conventionally or in isolated places the satisfactions remain much the same While many people have not the imagination to break entirely from the conventional they may do so partially The simple standard is not presented here with the idea that it will gain wide popularity Because it requires both courage and thoughtfulness only a few will adopt it

Cosmopolitan Standard

A third type of living standard has been left until the end for discussion because it may be either a conventional or an individual standard depending upon the group in which one lives This standard of living is known as cosmopolitan and consists of elements chosen from wide social experience for certain groups such as the international set these standards are conventional Their members have had wide experience in travel and have seen how people live all over the world On the other hand a homemaker in a small town might be very individual though her standard of living could definitely not be called simple in choosing to serve coffee in demi tasse cups in the living room Selection of stainless steel tableware in place of silver might be conventional or individual depending on one's group

To be cosmopolitan in the broadest sense implies the ability to fit into new situations—a feeling for the right thing to do A saying ascribed to Jane Addams is that the person is most cultured who can meet the most people on their own grounds One faces this test in situations where eating unusual foods is involved as well as those involving great cultural differences In the home such standards as those for owning and wearing correct attire grooming oneself for the occasion using certain foods found in cosmopolitan areas choosing a recording of an author reading his own works or a quality magazine are all examples of cosmopolitan standards

SUMMARY

Values goals and standards are interrelated as motivation underlying decision making. Values are the broadest and most comprehensive of the three. They are important to an individual whether or not he can define his values clearly. They vary among individuals but it is possible to list ten or a dozen that are common in a given society. Values may be classified as instrumental or intrinsic and as factual or normative.

Goals grow out of values and are more definite and specific. Although families differ in the way they may reach them, four rather general goals are important in family living: the well rounded development of the individuals making up the group; development of satisfying interpersonal relationships within the group; acceptance of differences among group members; and acceptance of mutual responsibility between family and community.

Standards also stem from values although it is not always easy to see the relationship. They are habitual in our lives and are usually accepted without thought. They may be classified into conventional and flexible standards. Changing from one to the other may come from outside influences or as the result of conscious appraisal.

The standard of living is an all pervasive integrated standard which if conventional takes its character entirely from the group. The individual or selective standard of a family however emphasizes few or many elements to meet its own needs and interests. When the emphasis is on the nonmaterial and the nonluxurious it is called the simple standard.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

Values and Goals

1. Think of some person who has values, goals and standards very different from yours. What can you find to admire in the person which will help you toward a greater appreciation of differences in people?
2. Think back to the most recent time a group was together for at least half an hour, perhaps at dinner the preceding day. Analyze the conversation at that time with a view toward improving personal and group development. Cover in the analysis such points as:
 - a. Contributions
 - (1) Who contributed the largest number of times? Few or no times? Why?
 - (2) Which contributions were the most stimulating? Because of their content? Because of the manner of presentation?
 - b. Content
 - (1) What topics were covered?
 - (2) What balance of time was spent on each?

- (3) Was the largest amount of time spent on one or two topics because of general interest or because one or two individuals talked continuously on them?
 - (4) Were any topics discussed that could lead to a deeper understanding of people or events?
- 3 In the chart on p 56 13 daily tasks are listed Have at least 4 people (a b c and d) rank these items according to their order of importance to the individual doing the rating The raters should be living together in a home dormitory or home management house and each should do the rating without knowing the rank placed on a task by the others Total the ratings of all raters for each activity and then determine the relative importance of each activity to the group as a whole
- 4 Plan a group activity which you feel will draw a group closer together It should occupy only a small amount of time—perhaps 15 minutes unless carried out during meal time—and require only a small amount of money if any (These limitations should be set up definitely by the group) Evaluate on the basis of
 - a Originality
 - b Active participation of group members
 - c How long it will be remembered
 - d Cost in
 - (1) Time both for preparation and carrying out
 - (2) Money
 - e Effectiveness in comparison with activities other group members may have initiated
- 5 Watch for different types of nonverbal communication in a period in which a group is together such as at an informal conference during a practical working period or in a family gathering Compare notes afterward to see
 - a How many different types were observed
 - b If the same signs were noted by several observers
 - c If similar interpretation was given to a particular sign by the majority of observers Does this agree with the feeling reported by the person concerned?
- 6 How may the process of developing satisfying relationships be speeded up in a group? Apply to a home management house situation if pertinent
- 7 Think of a family whom you know well How conscious is it of its own goals? If the family has stated its goals what evidence do you have that they are working toward them?
- 8 During your period of residence in a home management house what particular goal relating to people has been important and what steps have been taken toward its achievement?

RELATIVE IMPORTANCE OF SELECTED DAILY TASKS

OVERVIEW OF MANAGEMENT

Tasks	Individual Rank Preferences 1 highest—13 lowest				Total Across	Rank Totals
	a	b	c	d		
Living room tidy (Newspapers, magazines, toys picked up, ash trays emptied)						
Living room clean (Furniture dusted, floors clean, everything in order)						
Bedroom tidy (Bed made, pajamas hung up)						
Bedroom clean (As above, but floors and furni- ture dusted, dresser and chest tops cleared too)						
Kitchen tidy (Dishes stacked neatly, garbage emptied, floor swept)						
Kitchen clean (Dishes done, appliances and cabinets wiped, spots on floor wiped up)						
Bathroom tidy (Towels hung, clothes picked up, toiletries put away, no clothes drying over tub)						
Bathroom clean (As above, but fixtures and mirror sparkling, floor washed)						
Homemaker neat (Lipsuck, combed hair, fresh dress or clothing)						
Family's favorite meal or home- baked cookies, cake or pie						
Dinner ready to serve when family or group gets home						
Table nicely set in the dining area (Perhaps with good dinner ware, flowers or some other at- tractive centerpiece)						
Mother or hostess to spend as much time as possible with other group members skipping any item ranked below this to do so						

- 9 The Personal Development Check List (p 58) enumerates activities which an individual can undertake in order to broaden his interests Fill out your record three or four times Anything recorded must be independent of class work
- 10 Select a comparatively definite goal for which you or your group are striving—for example broader intellectual interests List some goals which are dependent upon it List others that are instrumental in achieving it What resources are needed for reaching this cluster of goals? If some of the resources are lacking can the original goal be reached through other paths? If so how?
- 11 Since actions speak louder than words it is important to recognize that truly accepted goals are usually translated into action Divide a group into small committees giving each one a card stating a different goal which might be typical of their own age level After a five minute period each committee will describe to the entire group a typical day of a person who has chosen this goal See if the audience can guess the goal being illustrated In summary the group may decide which goal appears to have the most lasting satisfactions which the most immediate satisfactions

Comparing Conventional and Flexible Standards

- 1 Have three people rate three quite different but common foods served as a part of the regular meals in a home management house or other group residence They might be coffee baked apples and swiss steak If possible one person who prepared the food or helped prepare the food should rate it In a home management house the manager may well be one of the two other persons who is to rate the food since she knows the finished product which she expected Analyze the ratings as to
 - a Agreement among persons who judged
 - b Closeness of food products to standards desired
- 2 Critically analyze one or two of your own standards for housework and compare them to the standards (in the same areas) of two other people Are your standards like theirs? If they vary are yours more or less conventional? Do you desire to make any change in your standards as a result of this analysis? If so what?
- 3 Modifications of table service In problems (a) and (b) below the following records should be kept
 - Time from serving first person until all are served
 - Number of trips to kitchen (everyone's)
 - Total time waitress is away from table
 - Attractiveness of service as judged by at least three people
 - a Breakfasts or lunches Try three different methods of serving using the following or other ways
 - (1) Have waitress place food on table before calling group to the dining

area and carry out any service necessary during the meal Waitress clears at end

- (2) Have all food set up by waitress in buffet fashion in the dining area each person serves herself and is then seated at the table Waitress clears at end of meal
- (3) Have cook arrange food in kitchen Each person goes to kitchen serves self returns to dining area At end of meal each person takes own dishes to kitchen and rinses them (If group members eat at various times each washes her own dishes)

b Dinners

(1) Serving main course

- (a) Have main foods on the table in serving dishes The hostess serves herself and passes food to the person next to her and so forth
- (b) Host serves all plates
- (c) Have plates served in the kitchen by waitress
- (d) Buffet service

(2) Serving an entire meal

- (a) Conventional service
- (b) Without anyone leaving the table Tea cart card tables or other small tables should be utilized This service can be used only with a simple main course and a dessert that can stand at room temperature
- (c) Tray meals (all food taken at once)

On the basis of your results make recommendations to the groups stating which procedure(s) you find satisfactory Remember that one type of service may be recommended for general use and other for specific situations

- 4 Flexibility in house care Determine which housekeeping tasks need to be done daily which every other day or less frequently in order to maintain comfortable housekeeping standards in a particular situation Make suggestions to the group as to recommended frequency Have at least two people in addition to the person responsible for cleaning check the same time each day to determine what needs to be done that day to maintain a comfortable not a perfectionist standard of housekeeping A detailed record of what was done should be kept daily If the legs of a table do not appear dusty but the top is *only* the top should be dusted

Repeat on three successive days The daily records may appear thus

ARTICLE OF FURNISHING

CARE GIVEN

First Day

Second Day

Third Day

Drop leaf table

Top

Legs

End table

Rugs

Hall

OVERVIEW OF MANAGEMENT

At the end of the third day prepare a summary giving lists of recommendations of housekeeping duties for the particular situation thus

Daily

Dust magazine table top and rearrange magazines
Other activities (specify)

Every Other Day

Use vacuum cleaner on rugs
Other activities (specify)

Twice a Week

Dust table legs
Other activities (specify)

- 5 Give an example of a household standard in your own home that has changed in the last five years Trace the process of the change showing why it occurred
- 6 Describe and compare examples of standards which are (a) truly high (b) some which are high in the conventional sense of the word and (c) some which are flexible
- 7 Dishwashing procedures Try out two different variables in doing dishes at two different times Have all conditions identical except the one variable that is being studied
 - a Divide unwashed dishes into two sets as nearly identical as possible Allow all to air dry after washing and
 - (1) Rinsing the first set by immersing in hot water
 - (2) Rinsing the second set by pouring boiling water over it
 - b Divide unwashed dishes into two sets as nearly identical as possible After washing and rinsing
 - (1) Dry one set with tea towels
 - (2) Let second set air dry

Compare as to time appearance of dishes ease of handling after drying Make recommendations combining both variables
- 8 Using an automatic dishwasher On three different occasions try different ways of loading dishes in the dishwasher The number and kinds of dishes involved for each trial should be as nearly identical as possible
 - a Remove dishes from the dining area between courses and at end of meal stack neatly After the meal scrape and/or rinse the dishes and load washer
 - b As dishes are removed between courses scrape and/or rinse (whichever was done in a above) each dish and place it directly in the dishwasher At end of meal handle dessert dishes in same manner and start dish washer
- 9 Proceed as in b but start the dishwasher cycle before returning to dining area for dessert

Make recommendations to the group for method to use in loading dish washer

9 Evaluation of personal standards

- a In which areas do you feel most confident on conventional standards? Least confident? How would you check your judgment?
- b In which areas are you most ready to accept flexible standards? In which least ready?
- Compare the standards of care in a chosen number of dormitory rooms
 - (1) How often are they cleaned?
 - (2) What is done?
 - (3) How is it done?
 - (4) Are the standards conventional or flexible?

Standards of Living

- 1 Two families of equal size are living in the same community. Each has an income of \$6 000 a year. The Smith family has a simple standard of living; the Joneses a conventional standard of living. Discuss marked differences in their usage of time, money, and other resources. Contrast their satisfactions.
- 2 List two or three expenditures of time or money made by you or your family in the past month which are typical of an individual standard of living.
- 3 Describe something which you possess (tangible or intangible) which you do not consider a part of your standard of living. Explain why. Then describe something which you do not possess which you do consider a part of your standard. Explain.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- BEYER, Glenn H. *Housing and Personal Values*. Cornell Agr. Exp. Sta. Memoir 364 (1959).
- BROWN, Muriel W. Values in Childhood and Old Age. *Journal of Home Economics* Vol. 52, No. 6 (June 1960), pp. 407-413.
- CAMPBELL, Ferns. *The Consumer Interest* (New York: Harper and Row, 1949). Chapters 1-2.
- CHURCHMAN, C. WEST. *Prediction and Optimal Decision: Philosophical Issues of a Science of Values* (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice Hall, 1961).
- EBERMAN, Paul. The Value practice Dilemma. *Elementary School Journal* Vol. 59, No. 4 (January 1959), pp. 194-201.
- ENGBREITSON, William E. Values of Children—How They Are Developed. *Childhood Education* Vol. 35 (February 1959), pp. 259-264.
- FESTINGER, Leon. Wish, Expectation and Group Standards as Factors Influencing Level of Aspiration. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology* Vol. 37 (1942).

OVERVIEW OF MANAGEMENT

- FRANK Lawrence A. "The Philosophy of Home Management" *Seventh International Management Congress* (Washington D. C. National Management Council 1938)
- FREEMAN Ruth C. and DUX Jean M. Influence of Goals on Family Financial Management" *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 53 No 6 (June 1961) pp 448-452
- HALLIDAY Jean and PAOLLETT Beatrice An Exploration of Home Management Goals," *Marriage and Family Living* Vol 24 No 1 (February 1962) pp. 68-73
- HENLE R J S J Intellectual Elements in Home Economics Education *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 52 No 1 (January 1960) pp 9-12
- HOYT Elizabeth E. RYD Margaret C. MCCOVVILL, J L. and HOOKS J M. *American Income and Its Use* (New York Harper and Row 1954)
- JOHNSON Glenn L. *Value Problems in Farm Management* Paper presented at the Agricultural Economics Society (England) December 1959
- KAHL, Joseph A. *The American Class Structure* (New York Rinehart, 1957)
- KYRK Hazel *The Family in the American Economy* (Chicago Univ of Chicago Press 1953) Chapter 19 The Standard of Living
- MASLOW A. H. *New Knowledge in Human Values* (New York Harper and Row 1959)
- MAYO Leonard W. Strengthening Ethical and Spiritual Values in Family Life" *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 44 (October 1952)
- MCCREAL Ian *The Art of Making Choices* (Dallas, Southern Methodist University Press 1953)
- O BRIEN Carol B. The Consumer in an Affluent Society" *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 53 No 2 (February 1960) pp 79-82
- PHILAN Jean McS and RUEF Ruth *Values Expressed and Realized in Family Financial Plans* Pennsylvania Agr Exp Sta Bull 685 October 1961
- Proceedings of Conference on Values and Decision Making in Home Management* Department of Home Management and Child Development Michigan State University 1953
- RATHS Louis E. Values are Fundamental *Childhood Education* Vol 35 (February 1959) pp 246-247
- SIMON H A. *Administrative Behavior* (New York Macmillan 1951)
- Values and the Social Scientist *Journal of Social Issues* Vol VI No 4 (1950) Entire issue

3

Decision-Making as the Crux of Management

Management occurs when there is some problem to solve some choice to make. The various steps in the management process are really a series of decisions each based upon the last. These decisions bring about change. Certain important questions now arise. Does all management require decision making? Just how are decisions made? Are decisions in daily living commonly made alone or in groups? What research has been done in decision making? This chapter will consider these questions and also some aids in decision making.

ROLE OF DECISION MAKING IN MANAGEMENT

The making of a decision or choice making is the selecting of one action from a number of courses of action or the choosing of no action. In the preceding chapter the relationship of values to decision making was pointed out. Values are the motivation underlying decisions and at the same time decisions implement values. The making of decisions implies the existence of objectives toward which decisions are oriented.¹ The managerial process however is much more complicated than the making of a single decision. Each step in it requires many interrelated decisions thus decision making is the heart or crux of management. Esther Crew Bratton considers a decision the smallest unit in management and likens it to the atom in physical science.

Decision making is not done all at once but requires time for its completion. This characteristic was emphasized in a conference interested in

¹ D. Woods Thomas, "Sociological Aspects of the Decision Making Process," *Journal of Farm Economics* 19, 5 (1966), p. 1115.

² C. A. Bratton and Esther C. Bratton, "Decision Making in Home Management," *Proceedings of Conference on Values and Decision Making in Home Management*, Michigan State University, 1955, p. 31.

the study of consumer behavior but it is doubtless true of any kind of decision making.

decision making occurs over time. * lution of most of the difficulties of predicting—for either practical application or theoretical understanding—will come only by full appreciation of the longitudinal dimension in consumer behavior.

However not everything called management requires decisions. Some times action rests upon habitual behavior. A situation arises which is so familiar that a person simply follows an established habit even a reflex though nominally choice takes place. An example is that of striking a particular letter on a typewriter keyboard. Any one of ten fingers might be used but through habit formation a certain finger is automatically chosen. A similar example involving less reflex reaction is that of an experienced person setting a table for a meal. The number of glasses, plates of a certain size and pieces of cutlery are chosen without much thought. Tannenbaum⁴ rules out of decision making these unconscious and partially conscious choices and states: Human behavior results from either unconscious or conscious processes. When these processes are conscious decision making is involved. Such habitual acts as described above will not be regarded as true decisions in this book.

That statement does not mean however that habits are not valuable in management. Simon⁵ points out that the use of habit in purposive behavior permits attention to be focused on the new elements of a situation requiring genuine decision. The costs in time and effort are too great to use true decision making for every situation. It would be staggering to think of the number of decisions that would be required merely in dressing in the morning if habits were eliminated. Even in matters in which it is said choice occurs such as in making a plan for spending money unquestionably after a time or two if conditions have not changed many of the so-called decisions are more or less unconscious repetitions of earlier ones.

THE MAKING OF DECISIONS

Management in the sense of decision making is called for when conditions have changed thus requiring new habits and perhaps most important when habits and patterns of living need re-evaluation. To illustrate—in financial planning if the family has a new baby the use

³ N. N. Foote, Ed. *Household Decision Making: Consumer Behavior*. Vol. IV (New York: New York University Press, 1961). "Introduction," p. 5.

⁴ Robert Tannenbaum, *Managerial Decision Making*. (1950) p. 22.

⁵ H. A. Simon, *Administrative Behavior—A Study of Decision Making Processes in Organization* (New York: Macmillan, 1953) p. 88.

of the income must reflect the presence of an additional person in the family group. The college girl away from home for the first time is forced to change her habits concerning the use of time. In such instance conditions have changed. As an example of evaluation calling for new decisions, the older family that considers it has used its money satisfactorily may be analytical enough to wonder if its patterns of use could not be improved even though they appear to be good.

Difficulty of Decision Making

Although no physical work is involved in the making of a decision it is not an easy job. Jacques Barzun⁶ has been quoted as saying that the hardest work of all is to think and decision making is thinking. It is particularly difficult for the homemaker who has a greater number and more kinds of decisions to make than a business manager and must make them with little or no specialized training in most if not all of her decision making areas as the late Hazel Kyrk pointed out.

[The homemaker] is also the decision maker in each special field—dietetics, interior decoration, child care, and many others. Large scale business would hire a battery of managers for such highly specialized operations.

How Decisions Are Made

The way in which decisions are made is the subject of much recent investigation. Although the parts or steps are not completely clarified, there is reasonable agreement on the existence of three of the five successive parts listed below; the first and fifth parts are not always included. The five are:

1. Defining the problem to be decided
2. Seeking alternative solutions
3. Thinking through alternatives
4. Selecting an alternative
5. Accepting responsibility for the decision

DEFINING THE PROBLEM

It is surprising though not uncommon to find a group making a decision without each member being clear as to exactly what is being decided. Doubtless this lack of clarity occurs less often in the mind of a person making an individual decision but it is safe to assume that it

⁶ George Soule, *Time for Living* (Viking Press 1935) p. 17.

⁷ Hazel Kyrk, *Making Practical Decisions*, *Rural Family Living*, Home Economics Research Branch, Agr. Research Service, U.S.D.A., November 1935, p. 21.

occurs there at times. The ensuing steps in the making of a decision can not be satisfactorily taken unless this first hurdle is overcome. In some kinds of decisions it is an easy step for example selection of a dress. The problem there is clear—what dress shall be purchased. It is much less clear if the problem is: Shall Susan buy a dress? Here the decision may really be: Does she need a dress more than a suit? or: Does she need an article of clothing more than tuition for some special course that she also wants?

SEEKING ALTERNATIVES

Managing resources requires a great deal of knowledge in seeking alternatives and recognizing the consequences of each. This knowledge must be quite specifically related to one or more of the resources and the amount of knowledge available varies from resource to resource. Probably the largest stock of accurate information to be drawn upon relates to money or perhaps to food and the smallest stock to time.

When seeking alternatives ideally one should become aware of all possibilities. Practically that is seldom if ever possible because of the limits of time and of experience. People are more conscious of this step in decision making in some areas than in others. For example they recognize it when making certain purchases especially those that are relatively permanent and costly. The girl buying a new coat will shop around to the full limits of her time and her geographical market. She is not so conscious of seeking alternatives or perhaps not so able to find them when choosing uses of her time. Writers⁸ in various fields have stressed the importance of having many alternatives in decision making. Important as it is to have many alternatives there is danger of confusion with a very wide variety of choices. This is pointed out in relation to the many goods available in a wealthy society faced with a scale of choice that exhilarates and bemuses and finally extinguishes all sense of the proper ends of man.⁹ Life can become very complicated indeed on too rich a variety of choices. For many simple decisions it is not necessary or customary to have many alternatives.

THINKING THROUGH ALTERNATIVES

The next phase of decision making that of mentally following through the consequences of each separate alternative brings its own difficulties. Again ideally one should foresee all consequences but that is not

⁸ R. B. Perry et al. *The Meaning of the Humanities* (Princeton University Press 1938). H. L. Kingsley *The Nature and Conditions of Learning* (Englewood Cliffs N. J. Prentice Hall 1946).
⁹ Barbara Ward. *The Great Society in the Great Debate*. *The New York Times* Magazine May 8 1960 | 6

possible for various reasons. To begin with the consequences lie in the uncertain future. It is uncertain partly because of the impossibility of foreseeing the external changes that might influence the working out of a particular alternative and partly because the individual's feelings about it may change in the future. His anticipation may not produce the same feeling as reality will. This step in decision making was described years ago by John Dewey in the colorful phrase "dramatic rehearsal" that is acting out in imagination each possible alternative. In choosing a coat one set of alternatives may be that of color—for example a bright red against a brown. If the coat is to be worn three or four years it is difficult (though not impossible) to foresee a wardrobe of several years hence and even more difficult to know if the wearer will then like bright red or brown better.

In deciding upon so common a thing as new food shopping arrangements for a family group many alternatives may occur and must be followed through mentally. Who is to do the shopping? Shall it be the mother who has had a severe illness, the teen age daughter, the mother's sister, a private secretary living with the family or the father? Before deciding which member of the family is to do the task the logical consequences of each possibility must be explored. For example if the mother is not fully recovered she may need to be spared, if the daughter is inexperienced the food bills may go up, the father and the aunt may be extremely busy persons and also the father may not like food shopping.

It takes time to find and explore all the possible pathways and one way in which persons can be aided toward more effective "dramatic rehearsal" of alternatives is to make them see that the judgment process takes time. The popular phrase *snap judgment* suggests that the short time it takes to snap the fingers is not sufficient for making a wise decision.

On the other hand taking too much time interferes with the effectiveness of decision making. A bulletin on *Selecting Supervisors*¹⁰ lists speed in decision making as important. Also a study of a group of adjusted marriage partners compared with a paired group of divorced persons showed the ability to make decisions quickly to be associated with marital adjustment.¹¹

Price tells us that age and school training are not closely related to ability to follow through to logical consequences.¹² Imagination seems

¹⁰ U.S. Civil Service Commission 1951 p. 11

¹¹ Harvey J. Locke *Predicting Adjustment in Marriage* (New York: Holt, 1951) p. 186

¹² Hazel H. Price, "Measuring Ability to Make Wise Decisions," *Journal of Home Economics* Vol. XXXV (1945) pp. 351-352

to be the important element and it may be an inherent factor which does not change fundamentally. She states however that students may be helped to see the facts related to alternatives. Perry¹² emphasizes education as a means toward increasing quantity and depth of alternatives.

CHOOSING AN ALTERNATIVE

The fourth stage in decision making namely choosing one alternative of several is the least understood of the stages. It is of course impossible to focus upon all known alternatives and their consequences at once. There is a limit to the number of separate items that the mind can grasp at one time¹³ probably not over five or six. Hence if there are many alternatives they must be considered in groups.

Knight's¹⁴ early summing up of this step still has validity.

The mental operations by which ordinary practical decisions are made are very obscure and it is a matter for surprise that neither logicians nor psychologists have shown much interest in them. Perhaps it is because there is really very little to say about the subject—when we try to decide what to expect in a certain situation and how to behave ourselves accordingly we are likely to do a lot of irrelevant mental rambling and the first thing we know we find that we have made up our minds [not through logic but through judgment, common sense, intuition].

Simon indicates that there is a considerable element of chance in what alternatives are presented to the mind and even more in what one alternative is selected.¹⁵ This element of chance is due to external stimuli. For example the girl making the red or brown coat decision mentioned above may have seen only red or brown coats displayed attractively (external stimuli in finding alternatives) or only a brown coat shown on a model (external stimulus in selecting the one alternative).

It would be unnecessary to have the fourth step in decision making if the third could be perfectly carried out. If long-run consequences could be accurately foreseen one alternative would be clearly indicated. It is because of the uncertainty of the future that judgment must be exercised.

ACCEPTING THE CONSEQUENCES OF THE DECISION

This step not always included is however fundamental. It leads the making of a decision into the more complicated managerial process. The

¹² *Op cit* pp 3-42

¹³ Donald M. Johnson *The Psychology of Thought and Judgment* New York Harper and Row 1955) p 82

¹⁴ F. H. Knight, *Risk Uncertainty and Profits* (Boston Houghton 1901) p 211

¹⁵ *Op cit* p 92

sign that was said to have been on the desk of former President Truman. The buck stops here—expressed in a slang phrase this idea that the responsibility for a decision rests on the maker of that decision and is a part of the decision. No passing of the buck is legitimate.

A type of consequence to be accepted that is not always recognized is the existence of dissonance.¹⁷ In relation to decisions, dissonance is a lack of agreement between the knowledge of and feelings toward the alternative selected and the knowledge and feelings about the alternatives not selected. In other words, there are usually if not always some things about the alternatives not selected that are attractive and desirable and some things about the alternative selected that are not desirable. The more important the decision and the more different the appeals of the various alternatives, the greater is the dissonance. Where dissonance exists, there is unrest and usually some effort to reduce it. This effort can be explained in nontechnical terms as rationalization of alternatives chosen. It also may explain why so few unsatisfactory decisions are reported in research studies.

Importance of Knowledge in Decision Making

It is not enough to know the technique of making a decision. Especially in steps 2 and 3, knowledge about what is being decided is essential. As stated above, finding alternatives (step 2) cannot be accomplished without knowledge. If a woman buying a coat does not know of the existence of various new fibers and materials, she will not seek examples of the many kinds and she certainly will not be able to choose among them (step 3) without a knowledge of their special characteristics.

Another aspect of knowledge needed in step 3 is the degree or amount of it possessed in relation to (1) the amount of time and effort required to get more knowledge and (2) the risk involved in making the decision. This is explained schematically¹⁸ on the next page in selecting a coat.

Mathematics and Statistics in Decision Making

Within recent years, there has been accumulating a body of mathematical material on the decision-making process. Some 300 years ago an interest arose in the theory of probability in games of chance, but only since World War II did this interest in probability develop into mathematical theory applied to decision-making. Its major parts include

¹⁷ Leon Festinger, *A Theory of Cognitive Dissonance* (New York: Harper and Row, 1957).

¹⁸ Adapted from Glenn L. Johnson, "The Interrelationship of Values and Decision Making in Home Management," *Proceedings of Conference on Values and Decision Making in Home Management*, Michigan State University, 1955.

AMOUNT OF KNOWLEDGE AVAILABLE RELATED TO ACTION TAKEN

<i>Degree of Knowledge</i>	<i>Decision on Kind of Action to be taken</i>	<i>Example</i>
Insufficient information to act	Learning wait until more information is available	Waits to learn about new materials looks in market for them
Has adequate information to act and takes consequences	Risk action	Selects and purchases a coat of a new material though not sure of all its characteristics.
Has inadequate information to act voluntarily but cannot afford to attain more Must act because of something beyond control	Forced action	Purchases a coat because weather has unexpectedly turned cold and coat is needed
Information inadequate to act but since decision is unimportant no action is taken	Inaction	Already owns a coat that is usable—not vitally interested in owning a second coat
Sufficient information to act without any precautions	Certainty action	Selects coat after learning about and examining many materials

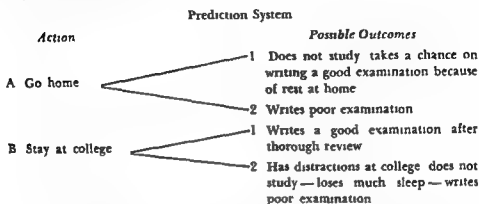
Decision Theory Game Theory and Linear Programming The last is described as how to find the best (say the cheapest) combination of a large variety of factors which cooperate to produce a given result.¹⁸ Mathematical formulas for decision making are essential when an electronic computer is used for the process. Such use in the household lies in the far future if ever, but the application of a simple formula is not inconceivable in the home and should lend precision to family decisions.

A relatively simple formula is available in Brown *Design for Decision*.¹⁹ A decision maker for a particular problem has two components: a predicting system for probability and a value system which are integrated

¹⁸ Kenneth E. Boufford, "Decision Making in the Modern World," in Lyman Bryson, Ed., *Man's Knowledge of the Modern World* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1960), p. 439.

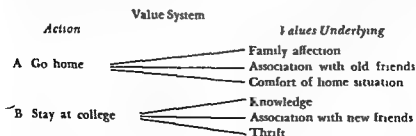
¹⁹ Lyman B. Brown, *Design for Decision* (New York: Macmillan, 1957).

by the Decision Criterion For example a college student must decide whether or not to go home for the week end preceding an important examination on the following Monday morning Her Prediction System might be as follows



Of course there are other possible outcomes of either line of action these are merely examples The student can actually assign mathematical probabilities to the four outcomes in her Prediction System *based on her own past experience* Perhaps B1 is most likely to happen and would be weighted heaviest The others might come in an order such as A 1 A 2 B 2 with decreasing weights on each

A Value System must also be set up There is no current understanding of value systems comparable to that of prediction systems Values are highly subjective and a scheme of weighting them will also be subjective Tests for the worthwhileness of a value¹ include the following Is reality considered? Does the value conform to reason and intelligence? Does it take other people into consideration? Does it consider human worth? A value that can pass these four tests would theoretically be weighted heavily The Possible Outcomes in the Prediction System chart were analyzed only in relation to the value of knowledge There are however other values in the situation as shown in the Value System chart

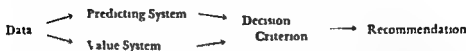


¹ Saul Bernstein Self-determination King or Citizen in the Realm of Values Social Work Vol 5 No 1 (January 1960) pp 38

Weights could be assigned by the student to each of these values according to her own hierarchy of values

She is now ready to use Bross' Diagram of a Decision Maker ■

Block Diagram Decision Maker*



From Irwin D. J. Bross *Design for Decision* (New York: Macmillan, 1953) ■ 29

We have made no attempt to relate these components mathematically but it could be done by an individual. Logically the Value System should be related to each Possible Outcome so that the final weights of each can be compared.

Factors Affecting Decision Making

There are many factors that influence decision making—among them may be mentioned the self-perpetuating nature of decisions, the interrelatedness of decisions, and the time perspective of the decision maker.

SELF-PERPETUATING NATURE OF DECISIONS

The self-perpetuating nature of decisions once made is worthy of consideration. If one has always bought a ticket for a music series, there is a strong tendency to repeat the pattern. Present decisions once embarked upon are not easy to change. Theoretically one can go back and select another alternative but the cost of so doing may be too great to justify the action. As Becker points out in his discussion of choosing an occupational career, a decision once made may call into being other decisions constituting a *consistent line of action*.²² One becomes committed to a line of action in such a way that he finds he must continue it because all other alternatives carry penalties and costs he does not wish to incur. The selection of a color scheme for a room illustrates a *resulting commitment*. The choice of later items for the room is limited to alternatives in line with the color scheme. The commitment may be realized only at the end of a series of small steps whose consequences were not foreseen in the original decision. In an established home, a new color scheme for a room may be recognized only after a number of items have been added, such as pillows for a davenport, an occasional chair purchased on sale, and a wall textile received as a gift.

²² *Op cit* p. 29

²³ H. S. Becker, "The Implications of Research on Occupational Careers for a Model of Household Decision Making," in N. N. Foote, *op cit* ■ 245

INTERRELATEDNESS OF DECISIONS

There are of course large and small decisions. The larger the decision the more it will affect future decisions. An obvious example is the choice of an occupation. A less recognized example for a college student is that of deciding whether or not to join a sorority. That choice will affect use of resources not only during the college years but perhaps after college as well. Nevertheless the cumulative effect of many small decisions for example deciding to buy an accessory on a whim may affect larger decisions such as how much can be spent on a winter coat.

TIME PERSPECTIVES

One factor playing upon decision making is that of time perspective that is looking both backward and forward.

We stand astride time as it were and Janus-like face the future and the past looking at once forward and backward and seeing events in both directions in a time perspective that is never fixed.²⁴

Time perspectives vary with different cultures with social classes with individuals and with age. The backward time perspective or backward look influences the alternatives found and the consequences expected. Thus an older person selecting a winter coat can summon up her past experiences and feelings about a succession of coats although there are great personal differences in this regard. There are also differences in the forward time perspective—the emphasis placed upon the future as compared with the present. Experience which is not accompanied by understanding is of little importance in determining expectations of the future. The importance of knowledge in managerial decision making is emphasized once again. The person choosing a brown rather than a red coat can project the consequences of that choice into the future better if she knows something of style trends and of the principles of building a wardrobe.

GROUP VERSUS INDIVIDUAL DECISIONS

Thus far decision making has been discussed as though it were completely an individual matter and of course many decisions are of personal concern only. Nevertheless the majority of choices made by family members concern others as well as themselves. The same is true although to a much less extent in other types of group living such as college

²⁴ Lawrence Frank *Society as the Patient* (New Brunswick: Rutgers, 1949) p. 349.

Weights could be assigned by the student to each of these values according to her own hierarchy of values

She is now ready to use Bross' Diagram of a Decision Maker²²

Block Diagram Decision Maker*



From Irwin D. J. Bross *Design for Decision* (New York: Macmillan, 1953) p. 29

We have made no attempt to relate these components mathematically but it could be done by an individual. Logically the Value System should be related to each Possible Outcome so that the final weights of each can be compared.

Factors Affecting Decision Making

There are many factors that influence decision making—among them may be mentioned the self-perpetuating nature of decisions, the interrelatedness of decisions, and the time perspective of the decision maker.

SELF-PERPETUATING NATURE OF DECISIONS

The self-perpetuating nature of decisions once made is worthy of consideration. If one has always bought a ticket for a music series, there is a strong tendency to repeat the pattern. Present decisions once embarked upon are not easy to change. Theoretically one can go back and select another alternative but the cost of so doing may be too great to justify the action. As Becker points out in his discussion of choosing an occupational career, a decision once made may call into being other decisions constituting a *consistent line of action*.²³ One becomes *committed* to a line of action in such a way that he finds he must continue it because all other alternatives carry penalties and costs he does not wish to incur. The selection of a color scheme for a room illustrates a resulting commitment. The choice of later items for the room is limited to alternatives in line with the color scheme. The commitment may be realized only at the end of a series of small steps whose consequences were not foreseen in the original decision. In an established home, a new color scheme for a room may be recognized only after a number of items have been added, such as pillows for a davenport, an occasional chair purchased on sale, and a wall textile received as a gift.

²² *Op cit* p. 29

²³ H. S. Becker, "The Implications of Research on Occupational Careers for a Model of Household Decision Making," in V. N. Foote, *op cit* p. 245.

INTERRELATEDNESS OF DECISIONS

There are of course large and small decisions. The larger the decision the more it will affect future decisions. An obvious example is the choice of an occupation. A less recognized example for a college student is that of deciding whether or not to join a sorority. That choice will affect use of resources not only during the college years but perhaps after college as well. Nevertheless the cumulative effect of many small decisions for example deciding to buy an accessory on a whim may affect larger decisions such as how much can be spent on a winter coat.

TIME PERSPECTIVES

One factor playing upon decision making is that of time perspective that is looking both backward and forward.

We stand astride time as it were and Janus-like face the future and the past looking at once forward and backward and seeing events in both directions in a time perspective that is never fixed.²⁴

Time perspectives vary with different cultures with social classes with individuals and with age. The backward time perspective or backward look influences the alternatives found and the consequences expected. Thus an older person selecting a winter coat can summon up her past experiences and feelings about a succession of coats although there are great personal differences in this regard. There are also differences in the forward time perspective—the emphasis placed upon the future as compared with the present. Experience which is not accompanied by understanding is of little importance in determining expectations of the future. The importance of knowledge in managerial decision making is emphasized once again. The person choosing a brown rather than a red coat can project the consequences of that choice into the future better if she knows something of style trends and of the principles of building a wardrobe.

GROUP VERSUS INDIVIDUAL DECISIONS

Thus far decision making has been discussed as though it were completely an individual matter and of course many decisions are of personal concern only. Nevertheless the majority of choices made by family members concern others as well as themselves. The same is true although to a much less extent in other types of group living such as college

²⁴ Lawrence Frank, *Society as the Patient* (New Brunswick, Rutgers, 1949) p. 349.

cooperative residence groups home management house groups or two or three friends sharing an apartment. In democratic living today decisions are increasingly made not by one person for the group but by all of those concerned. The apportionment of money and the sharing of work are examples of possible group decisions. Family decision making thus becomes a more complicated matter than individual decision making. Morgan sees it as a two stage process.²⁵ In the first stage a family member considers the decision in the light of his individual needs, preferences, information and expectations. In the second stage he considers it in the light of his relations with other family members.

Relative Quality

With present debate on the relative quality and effectiveness of individual and group decisions there is today not the complete approval of the latter implied in

The considered judgment of men who reason together embodies more than tolerance which is after all a somewhat thin and negative concept. It is rather based on an affirmative belief in the value of blending diverse experiences, diverse backgrounds. Such a composite or group judgment can be sturdier than any one of the individual or separate judgments that makes it up.²⁶

Individual decisions are more quickly made than group decisions and the quality of group decisions tends to be no higher than the contribution of the ablest member of the group.²⁷ The number of people desirably involved in making a decision is related to the number who take responsibility for that decision.²⁸

On the other hand group decisions may be better than individual ones in that more alternatives tend to be suggested and unproductive approaches are earlier detected. Their undisputed superiority however lies in their greater acceptance by the group and hence in the more effective carrying out of the decision once made. The classic of that finding is the Kurt Lewin study²⁹ during World War II of the acceptance and use of glandular meats. Another study³⁰ on influencing mothers to feed their babies orange juice gave a similar finding.

²⁵ J. V. Morgan, *Household Decision Making* in Foote *op cit* pp. 91-92.

²⁶ David M. Lihenthal, *This I Do Believe* (New York: Harper and Row, 1949) pp. 36-37.

²⁷ Donald M. Johnson *op cit* pp. 459-472.

²⁸ Jean M. Steckle, *Five Techniques Tested to Study Family Decisions in Household Processes* Masters Thesis, Cornell University, 1956.

²⁹ Kurt Lewin, *Group Decision and Social Change* in E. E. Maccoby, T. M. Newcomb and E. L. Hartley, *Readings in Social Psychology*, 3d edition (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1958) pp. 707-711.

³⁰ Alfred J. Marrow, *Making Management Human* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1957) p. 198.

The development of group decisions is not only a slower process than that of individual ones. It may also be a thornier road. When conflicts arise it is helpful to recognize that there are various levels and ways of resolving them. Follett says, 'When differing interests meet they need not *oppose* but only *confront* each other'.³¹ The word *confront* rather than *oppose* suggests that solution of conflict may be looked upon as a challenge or an opportunity for growth, not necessarily as something to arouse resistance and antipathy.

Resolving Conflict

Follett lists four possible outcomes representing different levels of adjustment in disagreements: (1) struggle and victory of one side resulting in dominance; (2) voluntary submission of one side; (3) compromise; and (4) integration. To these four the authors would add two others at approximately the same level as integration: (5) conversion, which is a possible outcome of voluntary submission, compromise or even of dominance; and (6) acceptance of differences where unified action is not essential and integration is not possible.

These six outcomes represent four different levels of harmony of feeling or inner agreement:

<i>Level of Harmony of Feeling</i>	<i>Method of Resolving Conflict</i>
1 Lowest (least inner agreement)	1 Struggle and victory of one side resulting in dominance
2 Next higher	2 Voluntary submission of one side
3 Next higher	3 Compromise
4 Highest (complete inner agreement)	4 Integration or conversion or acceptance of differences

The important point to recognize is the difference in feeling or inner agreement resulting from these different levels. At levels 1, 2 and 3 of solution of conflict the persons involved may be left farther apart in feeling after the conflict than when they started. At the highest level (4) regardless of which of the three methods of resolving conflict is used, harmony of feeling results. The greatest cleavage in feeling is at the first level, less at the third level, and an uncertain amount at the second.

³¹ M. P. Follett, *Creative Experience* (New York: Longmans, 1924), p. 156.

DOMINANCE OR VOLUNTARY SUBMISSION

Let us discuss each in some detail. At the dominance level one side demands and the other is forced to obey. It may be through physical force in the case of a child, through respect for status in the case of older persons, or through fear of loss of a grade in a classroom situation between teacher and pupil. At the second level of resolving conflict there is still victory on one side and submission on the other, but the understanding between the two sides is greater. The outward result is the same as level 1, that is, one side gives in, but the inner feeling is more unified. These levels may be shown schematically thus:

CONFLICT RESOLVED AT LEVELS OF DOMINANCE OR OF VOLUNTARY SUBMISSION

	<i>Lines of action</i>		<i>Inner feeling about action</i>	
During conflict	A	B	A	B
After conflict				
If A wins	AB ←		A	B
If B wins		→ AB	A	B

Even a trivial disagreement may be resolved at each of the four levels. Unquestionably fundamental group harmony or disharmony results from the resolution of many small issues as well as from the results of occasional large disagreements.

COMPROMISE

The level of compromise is the one often held up as most desirable to reach. Follett's great contribution on the solution of conflict is pointing up the difference between it and a higher level, that of integration. At the level of compromise there is some voluntary yielding on both sides without, however, an essential harmony of feeling or resolution of fundamental differences. Each opponent comes part way in outward action, but retains his original mind set on the issue. The inner cleavage remains. This may be shown diagrammatically:

COMPROMISE LEVEL OF RESOLVING CONFLICT

	<i>Lines of action</i>		<i>Feeling about action</i>	
During conflict	A	B	A	B
After conflict	→ AB ←		A	B

This difference of inner feeling will of course vary with the strength, importance, and duration of the issue. It is likely to smolder under the

surface and flare up at a later opportunity. For example, in deciding on the use of family money, if one member feels his allowance should be larger than the family thinks it should be, and the final amount agreed upon is a split between the two opinions, at a later time the recipient may keep thinking he could buy a desired article if his allowance were just a bit larger. The issue is not truly settled. However, compromise may be as far as it is possible to go on some issues.

CONVERSION

Conceivably levels 1, 2, and 3 may run into conversion, at which level each side that has submitted wholly or in part changes its mind at that time or later and really accepts the views of its opponent.

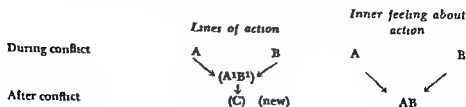
CONVERSION LEVEL OF RESOLVING CONFLICT

<i>Line of action immediately following conflict</i>			<i>Feeling about action immediate or deferred</i>
AB	or	AB	AB

INTEGRATION

The highest level of settling conflict is that of integration. It is a creative process in which the two sides reach a new solution together—one with which all concerned are satisfied. It means taking an issue apart to find what agreement already exists and what are the genuine points of difference. After those are discovered, the next steps are to build upon the items of agreement as far as possible and frankly acknowledge the remaining differences. The last and to many persons the most difficult step is to work out a new solution which would resolve the remaining differences. It takes logical thinking to recognize the differences and likenesses of thought on an issue, and it takes a desire to solve the problem to concentrate and build upon the points of agreement so far as they exist. Using the common opinions of the group as a basis for a new solution makes integration both a creative process which is stimulating in itself and also a solution of conflict that brings genuine harmony of feeling between the opposing forces.

CONFLICT RESOLVED BY INTEGRATION



In order to reach the highest level of resolving conflict there must be an inner willingness of all concerned. The leader of a group if there is one must be able to give himself an affirmative answer to the question

Do I really believe solutions other than my own are as good as my own? All must recognize that integration is a genuine meeting of minds and contains some of each person's thinking; it grows out of the group. Integration exemplifies the teaching of the Buddha that the only real victory is the one in which all are equally victorious and there is defeat for no one.

To give an example of each of levels 1 through 5 let us take the case of fastening a pencil sharpener to a shelf in a furnished apartment. There are two possible shelves for the sharpener—one high and above easy reach, the other lower and the correct height. The screw holes on the lower shelf would show if the sharpener fastened on the shelf is ever removed, and the landlord objects to holes that show. On the upper shelf the holes will be too high to show. Possible solutions at the five levels of resolving conflict are:

- 1 Dominance and submission—One person forces the use of the shelf he favors
- 2 Voluntary submission—One person accepts the use of the shelf he does *not* favor
- 3 Compromise—Use a shelf in an inconvenient place but of convenient height
- 4 Conversion—Either or both persons become accustomed to solution 1 or 3 and would now choose it if the decision were to be made anew
- 5 Integration—The original high shelf is used, but the pencil sharpener is fastened under it instead of on top. This position brings it down practically to convenient height of the lower shelf but the holes are not visible.

SOLUTIONS RELATED TO INTEGRATION

The Quaker custom of resolving situations through the sense of the meeting seems not far different in essence from integration. No vote is ever taken, but through open discussion both in and out of the meeting eventually a decision is made in which all concur. Some of the procedures of the Quakers might well be used by family and other living groups genuinely interested in a decision that will stay settled and be settled right.³² The silent period always held at the opening and closing of meetings and when opposing parties begin to clash is one such procedure. Another is the moratorium or cooling-off period between sessions.

³²Stuart Chase, *Roads to Agreement* (New York: Harper and Row, 1951), pp. 51-53.

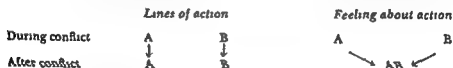
if a unanimous decision cannot be reached in one time. The Quakers do not hurry the process of reaching a harmonious decision.

The Quaker method assumes that the group will think alike to some extent after the decision is made. Brameld³³ in his concept of social consensus brings out certain ideas that may lead to integration and are also important at levels 1, 2, and 3 in bringing about some harmony of feeling. He like the Quakers would have no vote taken. He further urges that all evidence be presented and there be unrestricted full communication while the matter is being discussed. Thus even those who eventually give in have had their point of view heard and have maintained their dignity.

ACCEPTANCE OF DIFFERENCES

The last way of adjusting conflict is that of acceptance of differences. It is not a different level from integration but is a different means of reaching that inner harmony of feeling which is associated with integration. Not every issue can be settled by acceptance of differences. In fact one of the characteristics of group living is that many things must be accepted and done alike by the entire group. There are however probably more areas in group living where individual differences may be respected than we ordinarily think. In conflict sometimes a live and let live policy when voluntarily adopted by both sides of a controversy may be as satisfactory as unified action. It is the feeling about the differences which determines the success of this type of solution. For example if there has been controversy about the way personal allowances were spent in a family there is no reason why each member should not be allowed freedom in that respect provided the result is harmony of feeling.

CONFLICT RESOLVED BY ACCEPTANCE OF DIFFERENCES



RESEARCH IN FAMILY DECISION MAKING

Although it is true that the deepening of understanding of decision making in whatever area it occurs is helpful to our particular field of interest, we shall select our research findings from those directly related to it. They come largely from the field of home management itself from

³³ Theodore Brameld, *The Remaking of a Culture* (New York: Harper and Row, 1959), p. 430.

sociology and from consumer behavior. Home management researchers have been concerned chiefly with who makes the decisions in the family and upon what issues and with the objective factors that influence the decision making. One of the concerns of the sociologist with decision making has also been with who makes the decisions in the family. Consumer behavior research has thus far dealt chiefly with the choice of products on the market with a view to changing the behavior of consumers.³⁴

The question of who makes the decisions in families has been studied in relation to specific kinds of decisions chiefly financial. Researchers have investigated not only who actually makes the decisions but who exerts influence in the process and attitudes of husbands and wives toward the process.

Joint responsibility between husband and wife appears most clearly in deciding on home improvements in purchasing household goods and furnishings (half to over three fourths of cases)³⁵ and in deciding on savings (nearly half).³⁶ The husband³⁷ was more apt than the wife to decide on the car, the wife on food,³⁸ household activities³⁹ and in one study⁴⁰ on savings (though joint decisions were still more common here).

Pennsylvania studies give further information on husband-wife decision making. Practically 100 per cent⁴¹ of husband and wife cooperators expressed the opinion that joint decisions were good, about 85 per cent favored children having a part in decision making. The Pennsylvania group investigated from the standpoint of agreement between spouses the value systems⁴² used in financial decisions. (See Table 3.1.)

One of the interesting findings observable in Table 3.1 is that agreement on satisfaction in achievement of a value occurred in approximately the same order as the order of importance of the value.

³⁴ J. A. Bayton, *Psychological Research on Home Management Problems*. Paper presented at National Home Management Workshop, Purdue University, April 1960.

³⁵ Elizabeth H. Wolgast, "Do Husbands or Wives Make the Purchasing Decisions?" *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 23, No. 2 (October 1958), pp. 151-158. H. Schomaker and A. C. Thorpe, *Financial Decision Making of Rural Families in Michigan*. Forthcoming *Quarterly Bulletin*, article "Michigan Agr. Exp. Sta. C. Van Syckle Practices Followed by Consumer in Buying Large Expenditure Items of Clothing, Furniture and Equipment." *Mich. Agr. Exp. Sta. Tech. Bull.* 224, June 1951, p. 15.

³⁶ E. Wolgast, *op. cit.*

³⁷ *Ibid.* H. Sharp and P. Mott, "Consumer Decisions in the Metropolitan Family," *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 21, No. 2 (October 1956), pp. 149-156.

³⁸ Sharp and Mott, *op. cit.*

³⁹ M. J. Davis, *Decision Making in Relation to the Performance of Household Activities in New York State Homes*. Ph.D. Thesis, Cornell University, 1957.

⁴⁰ Wolgast, *op. cit.*

⁴¹ R. Honey, V. Britton, and A. S. Hotchkiss, *Decision Making in the Use of Family Financial Resources*. *Penn. Agr. Sta. Bull.* 643, 1959, Table 4, p. 6.

⁴² J. M. S. Phelan and R. H. Ruef, *Values Expressed and Realized in Family Financial Plans*. *Penn. Agr. Exp. Sta. Bull.* 685, 1961.

TABLE 3-1 Husband Wife Agreement on Values Underlying Financial Decision-Making*

VALUE	ORDER OF IMPORTANCE OF VALUE	AGREEMENT OF COUPLES ON		DIFFERENCES OF COUPLES ON	
		Scoring (percentage)	Degree of satisfaction (percentage)	Scoring (percentage)	Satisfaction (percentage)
Cooperation	High	42	87	Husbands higher than wives	—
Sharing	High	51	89	Wives higher than husbands	—
Planning	Medium	44	78	—	Wives higher than husbands
Protection	Lower	47	57	—	Wives higher than husbands
Savings	Lowest	26	50	Wives higher than husbands	—

*Based on J. M. Phelan and R. H. Ruef, *Voluntary Expectations and Related Family Financial Planning*, Penn. Ag. Exp. St. Bull. 685, 1961.

A study⁴³ of the difference between the influence of the husband and the wife in making decisions brought out that of all the spouses 48 per cent expected the husbands to have the greater share of influence, 10 per cent expected wives to have most or somewhat more influence. There was a difference both in degree of influence—28 per cent of husbands had high influence compared with 16 per cent of the wives—and in kind of influence exerted. Husbands contributed the greater share of the ideas in 64 per cent of the cases; wives in only 8 per cent of the cases. However, 80 per cent of the wives made more or most of the contributions affecting the social-emotional content of the situation; only 16 per cent of the husbands did so.

A careful study of one important satisfactory financial decision made by each of 100 Michigan farm families⁴⁴ sheds light on many aspects of the process not heretofore known. Only a few are given here.

⁴³ W. F. Kenkel, *Influence Differentiation in Family Decision Making*, *Sociology and Social Research*, Vol. 42 (September-October 1957), pp. 111-2.

⁴⁴ Peggy Schomaker and Alice C. Thorpe, *op cit*.

As to help sought in making the decision the following sources were used

<i>Sources consulted</i>	<i>Families consulting (per cent)</i>
Persons	
Salesmen and workmen	56
Friends and neighbors	45
Children	41
Relatives	38
Specialists	22
Community leaders	22
Other than persons (printed material radio etc)	36

The chief influence on the decision of these various sources was as follows

	<i>(per cent)</i>
Salesmen and contractors	26
Community leaders and specialists	15
Friends and neighbors	7
All other	19
Did not know	33

The adequacy of the facts obtained before the decision from the sources was considered satisfactory in 82 per cent of all the cases. However the per cent of older families and of better educated husbands considering the facts adequate was lower than for the group as a whole.

Nearly two-thirds of the families considered the risks involved in the decision. Only about one family out of five made the decision under pressure. The process was a slow one only one fourth taking less than three months in which to make it. Over two-thirds had much discussion over the decision.

The Davis study⁴⁵ of small household decisions offers information on alternatives considered. In most of the 110 decisions homemakers saw two alternatives in 50 of them they saw 3 alternatives in 10 they saw 4 possible alternatives.

AIDS IN DECISION MAKING

Thus far in this chapter we have concentrated on analyzing the process of decision making. Understanding it is unquestionably the best aid one can have in mastering it. There are however the further aids of understanding the process of change in general and habit-changing in par-

⁴⁵ *Op. cit.*

ticular and the providing of managerial experiences for the making of decisions

Habit Changing

Many if not most decisions involve change. The values that influence a decision resist change more than the habits through which those values are expressed. According to Lewin⁴⁶ change occurs in three steps: unfreezing of old elements in the situation; moving to a new level; and then freezing at the new level. He explained that people often fail to hold gains in habit-changing because they do not realize that freezing at the new level is necessary. But even unfreezing habits is a difficult job. It involves the development of a need for change and the establishment of a situation in which change is expected to take place.⁴⁷ Also it may be important to recognize that there will be some backsliding and therefore in Step 2—moving to a new level—one must make greater changes than he expects to maintain.

Experience and experiment alike show that motivation is a key point in habit-changing. It is not an easy process for anyone, and the stronger the desire to change, the greater the chance and ease of so doing. Common sense techniques for habit-changing include talking freely about the change, especially to a somewhat objective outsider, and perhaps causing an unpleasant event to follow continuing the old habit, for example, setting down on paper for oneself a record of time wasted if changes are to be made in habitual use of time. In the building of the new to replace the old habit, consciously repeating the new one and when successful, taking satisfaction in the achievement are helpful. Fairly large patterns of habits should be attacked rather than isolated parts of a whole. For example, when working on a new method of table setting to save motions, work on the whole process—laying linen, silver, and dishes and bringing in food—rather than trying each isolated unit individually and then putting the parts together.

Unquestionably the degree of intrenchment is related to the ease or possibility of changing habits. The college freshman who is accustomed to a very narrow range of foods at home and who has been away from home relatively few times may have more difficulty in enlarging her range of food likes in the college dining room than one who has less firmly established habits. Sociologists tell us that some kinds of habits are more deeply intrenched than others, regardless of human differences and of the conditions favoring or opposing change. Those habits relating to ideas such as ethical customs change at a slower rate than customs relating to

⁴⁶ K. Lewin, *op cit*.

⁴⁷ Ronald Lippitt, Jeanne Watson, and Bruce Westley, *The Dynamics of Planned Change* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1958), p. 130.

things Habits related to things change at different rates according to the type of thing Standards for clothing furniture and equipment change more rapidly than standards for food

Considering underlying values is an aid in habit changing If the new action decided upon is in line with an established value it is easier to accept than if it rests upon a different value Thus if friendliness is a cherished value of a homemaker it is easier for her to decide on simplifying refreshments for a social gathering than if prestige is an important value to her

Understanding Change

A rather different aid in long time decisions is understanding the normal changes of the family life cycle⁴⁸ Prediction both of resources and demands upon these resources can be much more accurate if this pattern is studied

There are major forces in today's world working for and against change⁴⁹ Lewin⁵⁰ indicates that more tension results when changes are achieved by increasing forces toward change than when the same level of action is achieved by lowering resistance to change In the diagram of forces below those making for change are on the increase in strength while some of those against change are definitely weakening

FORCES TOWARD AND AGAINST CHANGE IN HOME MANAGEMENT

<i>Toward Change</i>	<i>Against Change</i>
Technological advances affecting homemaker (equipment and products) →	← Investment already in homes and equipment Cost of technological advances
Mass communication techniques including advertising →	
Mobility →	← Traditions of a region or group
Social	
Geographical	
Existence of a melting pot for exchange of ideas →	← Isolation
Changing concepts of roles in family →	← Fear of neglecting family
Changing demands on time and energy →	← Perfectionist standards ← Time and energy involved in learning new methods
Additions to family	
Gainful employment of homemaker	
Emphasis on informality →	← Fear of being thought lazy

⁴⁸ See Chapter 6

⁴⁹ E. W. Crandall *A Theory of Changing* *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 51 No 5 (May 1959) p 347

⁵⁰ *Op cit*

Providing Opportunities for Experiences in Decision Making

Probably active managerial experiences are essential if a person is to develop in the art of decision making. The need of a laboratory for providing managerial experiences was early recognized and the home management house developed on many college and a very few high school campuses. One learns to make decisions by making decisions. These experiences should however have as many as possible of the following characteristics⁵¹ to be effective in developing managerial ability.

1 The weighing of alternatives is essential. In other words actual decision making must be highlighted and made conscious. It is one thing to decide to purchase a new dress. It becomes an experience in decision making if the individual consciously assembles and weighs alternatives in its selection.

2 Feeling the consequences of one's own decisions is basic. In the example above if the purchaser has relatively few dresses and the new one is important in her wardrobe the experience is far more vital than if the dress is one of a large number several of which are substitutes for each other.

3 The experience must be within the ability of the individual to manage with some success and should gradually become more complex. If a young person has bought none of her clothing before a dress may be too important an item for her to attempt alone first. The selection of her socks might be a start. Occasionally a young homemaker finds all the decisions related to purchasing of food far too confusing to make at one time. She succeeds better if she makes her decisions first on a daily basis rather than for a longer period. She may later attempt a two- or three-day unit of purchasing then a weekly unit.

4 Experiences should involve increasingly important issues. The illustrations given thus far involve more or less superficial issues although it is impossible to make apparently simple decisions without striking deeper ones. The purchase of a dress discussed above may develop into a decision as to total amount the person is to spend on clothing and that in its turn might involve a decision as to the person's share of family money. The point is that for decision making to be educational in nature increasingly fundamental issues must be consciously approached.

5 Transfer of learning from one managerial situation to another depends upon recognition of elements common to other situations. By inference a decision on the use of time consciously made and evaluated in one situation might be of use in making another decision concerning time.

SUMMARY

Each step in the managerial process is a series of decisions, some habitual acts but chiefly genuine choices among alternatives. Only the latter are true decisions.

Decision making includes five parts: defining the problem, seeking

⁵¹ Adapted from: *Some Factors Involved in the Teaching of Home Management*
U. S. Office of Education Misc. 2119 October 1938

alternative solutions thinking through alternatives selecting an alternative and accepting responsibility for the decision

Knowledge about the decision to be made is essential especially in seeking alternatives and thinking through them Risk involved in selecting an alternative must also be based on knowledge

Research in decision making of interest to home management is of two kinds that concerned with the process itself from the fields of mathematics and statistics and that which has to do with specific decisions

In a family situation and in other group living decisions tend to be developed by all concerned Group decisions though not necessarily better than individual decisions are more easily accepted and more effectively carried out by the group They may however be made at different levels of desirability based on the degree of group harmony resulting If conflict arises the most satisfactory solutions are those of integration and in some cases of conversion or acceptance of differences

Training in decision making consists essentially in having opportunities to make decisions These opportunities should begin with situations within the power of the decider to handle satisfactorily and gradually lead into more complex situations Facility in changing habits is an aid both in making decisions and in carrying them out

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

- 1 Think of a managerial decision confronting you your group or your family See how many alternatives you can think of before coming to a decision Examples of such decisions to be made are
 - a For a student—whether to go away for the week end preceding examinations
 - b For a professional woman—selection of a suit which will be both smart and easily cared for to wear at a series of professional conferences held in different cities
 - c For a family with \$100 to spend—what piece of equipment or furnishings should they purchase for the living room?
 - d For a home management house group—what sort of work shall the waitress do in addition to serving the meal?
- 2 Select three or four of the alternatives suggested in one of the situations discussed in the preceding question List the advantages and disadvantages of each alternative Which solution would you choose? Why? Does the solution chosen suggest anything about what kind of person you are or the things you consider important?
- 3 Describe some experience that has proved helpful to you in making sound decisions. Which of the factors in training for decision making discussed on pp 82-85 are found in your experience? Can you suggest any way in which this experience could have been made more meaningful?

- 4 Describe a conflict in which you were recently involved. At what level was it resolved? Why would you say it was this level? If it was not resolved at one of the three satisfactory levels show how it might have been.
- 5 Keep a record for one day of decisions you have made. Which of these went through the steps of decision making and which were habitual?
- 6 Cite an example of a problem for which you have been unable to find a satisfactory solution although you have considered many alternatives. Submit the problem to a group for suggestions. It is preferable for the group to be involved in the problem. (For example a chairman consulting with a committee on how to solve a seemingly impossible problem of finding a meeting time.)
Was the decision made by the group?
 - a One of your original alternatives?
 - b A further development of one of your alternatives?
 - c A completely new solution?
 How satisfactory is the solution to the person who originally asked for help? To the group? Would you take a similar problem to the group involved should it arise in the future? Why or why not?

BIBLIOGRAPHY

General

- BERNSTEIN, Saul. Self-determination King or Citizen in the Realm of Values. *Social Work* Vol 5 No 1 (January 1960) pp 38
- BRAMELD, Theodore. *The Remaking of a Culture* (New York: Harper and Row 1959)
- BROSS, Irwin D. J. *Design for Decision* (New York: Macmillan 1953)
- CRANDALL, Elizabeth W. A Theory of Changing. *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 51 No 5 (May 1959) pp 344-348
- FESTINGER, Leon. *A Theory of Cognitive Dissonance* (New York: Harper and Row 1957)
- DALE, Ernest. "Executives Who Can't Manage." *The Atlantic* Vol 210 No 1 (July 1962) pp 58-62
- FOLLETT, Mary P. *Creative Experience* (New York: Longmans 1924)
- FOOTE, Nelson N. (Ed.) *Household Decision Making: Consumer Behavior* Vol IV (New York: N.Y. Univ. Press 1961) especially James M. Morgan, Household Decision Making
- FRANK, Lawrence. *Society as the Patient* (New Brunswick: Rutgers 1949) Chapter VII Time Perspectives
- JOHNSON, Donald H. *The Psychology of Thought and Judgment* (New York: Harper and Row 1955)
- KATONA, George. *Psychological Analysis of Economic Behavior* (New York: McGraw-Hill 1951)
- KYRK, Harel. Making Practical Decisions. *Rural Family Living* Home Economics Research Branch Agr. Research Service USDA (November 1955)

- LEWIN Kurt Group Decision and Social Change in E. E. Maccoby T. M. Newcomb and E. L. Hartley *Readings in Social Psychology* 3d edition (New York Holt Rinehart and Winston 1958) pp 197-211
- LUNDBERG Craig C. Administrative Decision A Scheme for Analysis *Journal of the Academy of Management* Vol 5 No 2 (August 1962) pp 165-178
- MALONE C. C. and MALONE L. H. *Decision Making and Management for Farm and Home* (Ames Iowa State College Press 1958)
- Proceedings of Conference on Values and Decision Making* Dept of Home Management and Child Development Michigan State University July 4-6 1955
- SIMON H. A. *Administrative Behavior—A Study of Decision Making Processes in Administrative Organization* (New York Macmillan 1947)
- THOMAS D. W. Sociological Aspects of the Decision Making Process *Journal of Farm Economics* (1955 1956), p 1115
- VANDERWARKER Richard D. The Dietitian and Decision Making *Journal of the American Dietetic Association* Vol 35 No 10 (October 1959) pp 1032-1036
- WILSON Charles Z. and ALEXIS Marcus "Basic Frameworks for Decisions" *Journal of the Academy of Management* Vol 5 No 2 (August 1962) pp 150-164

Research

- BAYTON J. A. *Psychological Research on Home Management Problems* National Home Management Workshop Purdue University April 1960
- DAVIS Mildred Jean *Decision Making in Relation to the Performance of Household Activities in New York State Homes* Ph.D. Thesis Cornell University 1958
- The Decision Making Process in Its Relation to the Advancement of Rural Family Financial Security* Michigan Project 831 Preliminary Report 1960 Mich Agr Exp Sta
- FREEMAN Ruth C. and DUE Jean M. Influence of Goals on Family Financial Management *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 53 No 6 (June 1961) pp 448-452
- HONEY R. R. BRITTON V. HOTCHKISS A. S. *Decision Making in the Use of Family Financial Resources* Penn Agr Exp Sta Bull 643 1959
- KENKEL W. F. Influence Differentiation in Family Decision Making *Sociology and Social Research* Vol 42 (September-October 1957) pp 111-25
- PHILLAN Jean M. S. and RUEF Ruth Honey *Values Expressed and Realized in Family Financial Plans* Penn Agr Exp Sta Bull 685 1961
- PRICE Hazel C. Measuring Ability to Make Wise Decisions *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 35 (June 1943)
- SCHOMAKER Peggy and THORPE Alice C. *Financial Decision Making of Rural Families in Michigan* Mich Agr Exp Sta Forthcoming article in *Quarterly Bulletin*
- STICKLE, Jean M. *Five Techniques Tested to Study Family Decisions in Household Processes* M.A. Thesis, Cornell University 1956
- WOLCAST E. H. Do Husbands or Wives Make the Purchasing Decisions? *Journal of Marketing*, Vol 22 No 2 (October 1958) pp 151-158

4

The Management Process

INTRODUCTION

This chapter is concerned with the managerial process as the working tool of home management. We shall discuss first the process in general and then consider an additionally important phase when plans made by one person are carried out by others. This additional phase which occurs in the control step is supervision. In the business world management regularly involves supervision in the home and in some informal living groups it does not necessarily do so. It is however a part of management in a home management residence group and in most families involving children. The chapter closes with a brief look at the family council as a means of carrying out the process in homes and small informal living groups.

There is need for an understanding of the management process for at least three purposes: as a guide for research; as a conceptual framework to codify existing knowledge; and as a useful guide to administrative behavior.¹ Still a fourth reason justifying the study of the process of particular importance to students and teachers is that

in a rigorous course of study to be taken only once in a lifetime the emphasis should be on gaining an understanding of the processes involved. If we understand the nature of an operation or a process we are then in a position to work with it, modify it, or control it if we so desire.²

The word process is a loosely defined term. It may be simply explained as comprising a series of actions that lead to the accomplishment of objectives.³ Search for such a concept in management exists in

¹ Edward H. Litchfield, Notes on a General Theory of Administration, *Administrative Science Quarterly*, Vol. 1, No. 1 (June 1956), pp. 10-11.

² Willard W. Cochrane and Carolyn Shaw Bell, *The Economics of Consumption* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1956), p. vi.

³ W. H. Newman and C. E. Summer, Jr., *The Process of Management* (New York: Prentice-Hall, 1961), p. 9.

a number of fields. The answers thus far found independently have points of similarity and points of difference as shown in a few examples. From the business world there is Litchfield's cycle of action consisting of decision making, programming, communicating, controlling, and reappraising.⁴ Newman defines administrative skill as involving the mastery of five basic processes: (1) planning, (2) organizing, (3) assembling resources, (4) directing, and (5) controlling.⁵

From farm management comes a fivefold breakdown of the tasks of management: (1) getting of ideas and making observations, (2) analysis of observations, (3) decision making, (4) action, and (5) acceptance of responsibility for actions.⁶

Leaders in the home management field in their early conferences in the 1930s sought a framework for management for Litchfield's third reason, namely, the need of a guide for administrative behavior and one useful in imparting managerial skills. The search for such a guide went on for about a decade before the present framework found considerable acceptance. In this, the managerial process consists of three interdependent steps: all mental activity, planning, controlling the plan while carrying it through, whether it is executed by the planner or others, and evaluating results preparatory to future planning. Though the steps in management [however defined] often occur in very attenuated form, they are all probably present.

If the process is carried through logically, the steps occur in a time sequence—planning is future tense, occurring before action takes place; controlling is present tense, occurring while action takes place; and evaluating is past tense, occurring after action has taken place. For example, one plans menus on Thursday for the week end, one controls the carrying out of the plan during the week end, and sometime before making plans for the succeeding week end, one looks back to see just how satisfactory were the last plans in the accomplishment of their objectives. In real life there is seldom a sharp line of demarcation between the steps, particularly between evaluation and each of the two earlier ones. Nor is there always or necessarily the time sequence in the process. A woman may become very conscious that her plans do not usually work out—the evaluation step. From that she may later focus her emphasis on either or both of what should logically have been preceding steps. The emphasis on the various steps will vary from situation to situation. The process is like a spiral. Step 3 of one managerial action leads to step 1 of another.

⁴ Litchfield *op cit.* p. 12.

⁵ W. H. Newman, *Administrative Action* (New York: Prentice Hall, 1951), p. 9.

⁶ Lawrence A. Bradford and Glenn L. Johnson, *Farm Management Analysis* (New York: Wiley, 1955), p. 7.

⁷ Litchfield *op cit.*, p. 13.

action which may be either a repetition or a further stage in a chain of events

A special and important mental activity associated both with the planning step and with the control step of management is that of coordinating or harmonizing the parts. Most plans are akin to jigsaw puzzles and are successful only if the various parts fit together. For example, one of the great problems of financial planning is bringing the parts into harmony so that food does not overbalance shelter, shelter overbalance savings, and so on. Equally in carrying out a plan, this fitting together or coordinating must be given special attention. Thus after a financial plan is made, if taxes go up and income does not, then some other use or uses of the income must be scaled down.

Relation of Decision Making to the Managerial Process

Since the 1940s, decision making has aroused great interest in many areas of learning. Understanding of decision making has grown apace as outlined in the preceding chapter. Some writers have included it as one step or task of management; others have seen it as almost the whole of management. The authors of this book consider it as the essential ingredient of *all* of the steps in the management process, not as a separate step by itself. A single decision is the smallest unit in management, and the criterion of a managerial activity is that it requires conscious decisions involving the use of resources. The management process is thus a combination of many decisions, all blended with the dimension of time and leading to the achievement of a particular goal. The process gives coherence to the goal-seeking activities which is lacking when each managerial function is seen in isolation.⁸

The selection of a specific long-term goal may be a single major decision; however, it cannot be implemented without many more decisions. These constitute the managerial process as a means to this end or goal. The achievement of an intermediate goal (requiring the use of the managerial process itself) may be a part of the plan for attaining a larger goal. Thus as Simon⁹ says: "There are wheels within wheels within wheels." Nevertheless, the large phases are often clearly discernible.

It is true that in business the term decision-making or decision making is frequently used to cover the entire administrative process. It appears to the authors, however, that there is a distinct advantage in recognizing

⁸ An analysis in terms of isolated managerial functions is found in Ruth Deacon and Esther Crew Bratton: "Home Management: Focus and Function," *Journal of Home Economics*, Vol. 54, No. 9 (November 1967), pp. 763-66.

⁹ Herbert A. Simon: *The New Science of Management Decision* (New York: Harper and Row, 1960), p. 3.

the smallest unit of management as differentiated from groupings of these units into larger phases or steps in attaining goals

A single decision is a planning controlling or evaluating decision in relation to a *specific* goal. A single action may however be associated with planning control or evaluation of different goals. For example a homemaker has many interrelated goals concerning her family's meals: goal 1 to provide appetizing nutritious meals; goal 2 to stay within a given money budget for food; goal 3 to have individual foods of good quality. She is in the market purchasing food for planned menus. The green vegetable for Tuesday's dinner is to be broccoli. The broccoli however is expensive and of poor quality; spinach is excellent and offered at a special price. She chooses spinach thinking "I'll garnish it with hard cooked egg" (Planning in relation to goal 1). "The price is less than I had expected to spend for broccoli" (Control in relation to goal 2).

Unless a green vegetable is good before it is cooked it isn't worth cooking (Evaluation in relation to goal 3).

The importance of the managerial process in implementing goals is not always recognized. A Ford Foundation national study¹⁰ of the economics of education reported that although two-thirds of the parents had college education of their children as a goal, only 40 per cent of them had any saving plan toward that end. Nor was the savings plan of this 40 per cent realistic for many as their average total savings for this purpose was only \$150 in the preceding year.

Difficulties in Studying the Managerial Process

A great difficulty in studying the mental process of management is that much of it takes place simultaneously with some physical activity. A busy mother drives her teenage children to school. On the way plans are being made by the family for the day. If asked what she had been doing between 8:15 and 8:30 that morning she doubtless would have answered "Driving the children to school"—a perfectly true answer though no truer than the possible reply "Making plans for the use of family time." Evaluation in particular occurs at the same time with other activities and as stated above with the other steps in the process of management. The homemaker who plans her Sunday dinner dessert as she was preparing Thursday's pudding [controlling the carrying out of Thursday's plan] might think "We've had blueberry pie so often for Sunday dinner I think I'll try the family next Sunday on pineapple upsidedown cake." Here the evaluation step of planning Sunday desserts in general is taking place along with the control step of Thursday's menu plan and also with

¹⁰ Report in the *Providence Journal Bulletin*, September 20, 1959, pp. 1-26.

the planning step of the next set of menus. It is only for purposes of clearer understanding that we study the three steps separately.

The three steps in management occur vaguely or clearly defined regardless of what resource or combination of resources is being managed. It has been pointed out that theoretically it would be possible to make interrelated plans and carry out the later steps on management of all family resources together. This however would make so extremely intricate a web that the common practice is to focus upon the management of one resource at a time recognizing that just as the three steps in management blend at times so does the management of two or more resources. Also the information upon which specific decisions are based varies from resource to resource. Wherever possible one should recognize the effect of decisions concerning one resource upon other resources. Furthermore in using the managerial process to achieve a specific goal the sum total of resources relevant to that goal should be considered in the various steps of the process. This chapter considers in some detail each step in the management of any resource.

In regard to the managerial process as in some other aspects of management there is a dearth of objective material. This does not mean however that use of the process is not observable.¹¹

The analysis of the managerial process is constantly evolving. There is the persistent question of what activities to include.^{12 13} This question is at least a two-pronged one: 1) what activities are applicable to all fields of management and 2) does the process of home management have some unique characteristics. There is an assumption in the business world that management applies only to formal groups in which workers and managers are separate. Hence communication is receiving increased attention in management. In the home the homemaker may have problems of managing resources by herself as well as with the family group. Nor can the individual who lives alone be ruled out as a manager using the managerial process. There is a recognition even in the business world that management may involve only one person that it may take place entirely within one nervous system. Many administrative choices are made on the basis of manipulating the information gained in the memory and/or perceived in one's personal environment.¹⁴

Another important question has arisen—are all aspects of management

¹¹ Carol B. O'Brien *The Management Process Used in Food Shopping* Mich Agr Exp Sta Tech Bull 282 January 1961

¹² Carol B. O'Brien and Dorothy Z. Price "An Investigation of the Traditional Concept of Management" *Quarterly Bulletin Mich Agr Exp Sta* Vol 44 No 4 (May 1962) pp 714-725

¹³ Ruth Deacon and Esther Crew Bratton *op cit*

¹⁴ Craig C. Lundberg "Administrative Decision: A Scheme for Analysis" *Journal of the Academy of Management* Vol 5 No 2 (August 1962) p 176

completely rational and hence researchable through direct questioning or must more sophisticated methods¹⁵ be employed to gain full understanding? This question is especially important in investigating the control step¹⁶

STEPS IN THE MANAGEMENT PROCESS

Step 1 Planning

Because planning was long considered synonymous with the entire management process one finds references to that phase of management in the distant past. Basic principles of long term planning in management are therefore not the product of our present era. Household economy calling for planning far antedates the money economy of the modern industrial world. In the distant past both the housewife and husbandman made seasonal plans. Certain tasks required their attention at given times others could be fitted in at will. Cato suggested useful activities that could be accomplished by slaves during periods of idleness. A novel which depicted life in a region where household economy was still dominant illustrated seasonal planning of a Chinese peasant woman. She did all her spinning weaving and construction of garments when she was not needed for work in the fields.¹⁷

With the coming of an industrial economy many of the earlier functions of the home were absorbed by outside groups and the felt need for planning increased in industry but decreased in the home. Today planning is nation wide and world wide in its scope as is evidenced by the many planning agencies of government. In an era in which it is recognized that such a goal as peace between nations cannot be achieved without planning it is not surprising that this technique for reaching goals—both tangible and intangible—is more widely accepted by individual families. Homemakers are becoming conscious of greater difficulty¹⁸ in planning of resources today than in the recent past.

VALUE OF PLANNING

That planning does pay has long been assumed. The Farmers Home Administration practice of requiring financial plans from all families to

¹⁵ D. G. VanBortel and I. H. Gross, *A Comparison of Home Management in Two Socio-Economic Groups*, Mich. Agr. Exp. Sta. Tech. Bull. 240, 1954, p. 9.

¹⁶ O'Brien and Price, *op. cit.* p. 725.

¹⁷ Pearl Buck, *The Mother* (New York: Day, 1934).

¹⁸ Stanley M. Hunter, *What Your Home Finds Tell Us*, Discussion presented at National Home Management Workshop, Purdue University, April, 1960.

whom loans were granted was based on this assumption. Those facts which are available substantiate the belief that planning is profitable or is associated with desirable results. In a study of the *Use of Time in Its Relation to Home Management* Jean Warren found that 34 per cent of her homemakers with the highest labor efficiency reported planning as one of their time saving methods. In contrast only 14 per cent of her homemakers in the lowest labor efficiency group considered planning important as a time saving device.¹⁸ Dorothy Dickins had the homemakers in 936 Farmers Home Administration families in Mississippi rated as 1) above average or 2) average and below average in managerial ability. Those in the first group rated particularly high on three of five basic factors of which one was ability in planning and adapting plans. Families with wives of above average managerial ability had more consumer goods, greater increase in net worth for the year 1941, better health and wider participation in educational clubs than those of wives of average or below average managerial ability.¹⁹

The value of planning, whether assumed or based on evidence, probably lies in the fact that it is done ahead of the job. Through dramatic rehearsal one visualizes the outcomes of various procedures and chooses the most satisfactory solution, thus eliminating time consuming indecision after work has started. Pre planning permits the job to be seen as a whole and not only are parts combined smoothly but they are also seen in proper perspective to each other. The worker who is interested in his job at the start, who understands what he is to do and knows how he is to do it (and all three advantages may be accomplished by planning) is able to reach a higher level of steady production more rapidly than a worker not so qualified, other factors being equal.

Nevertheless there is always danger of over-emphasizing anything including the value of planning. Dorothy Lee²¹ warns that planning may take the delight of spontaneity out of life, especially the planning of leisure.

No random driving in the country, no exploring in lanes, no exploring in the realm of books, no building up a fund and then discovering something to spend it on. How does one discover the unknown and unpredictable?

Someone has said that the planned life is the closed life. In the balanced life there must be room for both planning and spontaneity.

¹⁸ Jean Warren, *Use of Time in Its Relation to Home Management*, Cornell Agr. Exp. Sta. Bull. 734, June 1940, p. 79.

¹⁹ Dorothy Dickins, *Effects of Good Household Management in Family Living*, Miss. Agr. Exp. Sta. Bull. 380, May 1943, p. 29.

²¹ Dorothy Lee, "Discrepancies in the Teaching of American Culture," in George D. Spindler, Ed., *Education and Anthropology* (Stanford University Press, Palo Alto 1955), p. 175.

TECHNIQUES OF PLANNING

Planning consists of a series of individual purposive decisions which bear one upon another. In addition to the steps in decision making already given—defining the problem seeing alternatives following in imagination each alternative to its solution selecting the most appropriate of the possible choices and accepting the consequences—making a plan requires two or three further steps. First an order of importance, must be developed in case a part of the plan must be omitted and so that more emphasis is given its most essential parts; second the parts of the plan must be coordinated and third a time sequence for carrying out most plans must be determined.

The common thread in the planning of various resources particularly those that exist in known quantities such as time money and some materials consists largely of balancing the amount of the resource available with the demands made upon it. Plans are alike too in that each must in order to succeed 1) be made to-order for the individual or group who is to use it 2) be flexible and 3) be realistic recognizing the frailties of mankind in general and oneself in particular.

RELATIVE FREQUENCY OF PLANNING

Differences occur not only in the plans for using the various resources but also in frequency of planning. According to one study in actual practice budgeting of money for current expenditures was less frequent than planning for savings or for the use of time. A Michigan report²² showed that of 382 farm and village families interviewed 81.9 per cent made some kind of budget for savings and 83.3 per cent planned for the education of their children. In contrast to this phase of money management only 24.3 per cent planned for current use of money. Sketchy though the plans might be 72 per cent of these homemakers planned the use of their time. Fewer money than time budgets may have existed due to the fact that money plans are more exacting than are plans for time and require some sort of a mathematical balance.

Another Michigan study²³ was made of managerial practices of a group very different from the earlier one. This group consisted only of young families all the husbands being enrolled in college at the time. Their planning practices showed greater frequency of money planning in its

²² Irma H. Gross and Evelyn A. Zweimer. *Management in Michigan Homes*. Mich. Agr. Exp. Sta. Bull. 196. June 1944.

²³ Alice C. Thorpe and Irma H. Gross. *Managerial Practices in the Homes of Married Students at Michigan State College*. "Quarterly Bulletin Mich. Agr. Exp. Sta." Vol. 32 (February 1950) pp. 288-306.

various aspects combined with lesser frequency of time planning than did the earlier study. A possible explanation of these differences is that the younger families were more conscious of money limitations than they were of time limitations.

It has been found through research that most women regularly plan menus at least for a few meals ahead and often for special occasions. In a study of the management of food shopping 85 per cent of the 150 women interrogated had some kind of shopping plan although only half of the total group had written shopping lists.²⁴

Step 2 Controlling the Plan in Action

The second step—controlling the carrying out of the plan—is in homes almost literally the no-man's land of the management process. There has been little attention given to it because the planner today is increasingly apt to be the one who carries out the plans she makes. Some people have thought of this step as merely carrying out the plan without recognition that many new decisions are required which may result in changes in the plan. If the control step has not been clearly understood by specialists in the field, it is not surprising that it has not been widely used consciously by homemakers. In a food shopping management investigation²⁵ the control step had a low correlation with the amount of total management practice. During the performance of tasks it takes a relatively high degree of introspection to become aware of the decisions one is making in this managerial step and their significance for attaining goals. The control step was the only step found in the investigation of food shopping²⁶ which was not affected by education except that with increase of educational level fewer homemakers made adjustments in their plans at the market. This may have been due to the fact that education was a resource in making workable plans. There was also evidence that the homemakers in the total group who were classified as dissatisfied practiced more of this control step than those described as satisfied. The classification dissatisfied was based on six presumably undesirable situations and attitudes. These included generalized dislike of food shopping or of food and lack of interest by the family members.

PHASES

As a plan is put into action unless it is a very simple one it is usually necessary to elaborate the decisions made in the planning step.²⁷ This is

²⁴ Carol B. O'Brien *op cit* p. 9.

²⁵ O'Brien and Price *op cit* p. 721.

²⁶ *Ibid* p. 718.

²⁷ Newman and Summer *op cit* p. 535.

The third phase of this control step is if necessary adjusting the plan thus making fresh decisions. Conditions may change. Baked potatoes have been planned for dinner; the homemaker has less time for preparation than she had expected, so she quickly substitutes small potatoes boiled in their jackets. A family has set aside money for a two-week motor trip. Car trouble develops the third day out and not only keeps them in one spot for two days but absorbs the cost of the next week's lodging. They return home therefore at the end of the first week and spend the next vacation week exploring and picnicking in near-by spots, going home each evening. Conditions may remain as expected but the plan may prove to be faulty. A bride finds on her first thorough cleaning day that she has underestimated the time necessary for washing and waxing the kitchen floor. She quickly decides to postpone washing the basement steps till a later time.

FACTORS IN SUCCESS

The success of the control step depends among other factors on the following: 1) suitable checking devices selected with regard to the vagaries of the individual manager; 2) promptness in checking so that adjustment may be effective if necessary; 3) new decisions made in the light of established goals and the amounts of the resources now available, especially in light of new information; and 4) flexibility in the make-up of the manager. Some checking devices are distasteful to certain temperaments—for example, an alarm clock for arising. Yet one deeply studious person who rejected it completely for morning usage liked it to remind her when to go to bed! Checking must be started early in order to do any good. Thus looking at the clock toward the end of dressing will not aid one to catch a bus that is almost due. Quick, thoughtless adjustments may interfere with accepted goals—for example, the impulsive buying of an expensive hat when a survey of the local market shows none desirable within the price range planned prevents the goal of a complete new outfit. Any further decisions, however, must be made in light of the amount of money still remaining.

The characteristic of flexibility is closely related to success at this stage of management. Both the person or persons managing and the plans themselves need to be flexible. Even the standards or goals to be reached need to be adjusted to suit the situation. One of the great criticisms of home management has been its rigidity. Plans once made were to be carried out to the letter or else the management was called unsuccessful. The control step in management emphasizes the opposite idea. Change is frequently necessary for a plan in action.

CONTROL OF DELEGATED PLANS—SUPERVISION

When the carrying out of a plan is delegated to others supervision usually becomes important. It is the rare person who manages a home without the aid of other family members or of outsiders. The nearest to such a situation is the individual who lives alone in an apartment or house and has no paid help. In most living situations however the person at the helm plans with or without consulting other group members and then delegates part of the carrying out of plans to others. In an early research study³² it was found that directions were given to children by close to three-fourths of the homemakers interrogated and to paid help by over two-fifths of them. Children's work was usually or always checked by about two-fifths of the homemakers that of paid help by over half of them. The ability to work happily with people is therefore vital to a home manager. It is important to realize that informal groupings may be as important as formally established channels of communication in determining whether the goals of the supervisor or the larger group are achieved.³³ Another study indicates that adjustment in marriage may be associated with the type of person who unobtrusively manipulates works with and directs the efforts of family members so that the goals and objectives of the family may be attained.³⁴

Types of Supervision In controlling a plan carried out by someone other than the planner there must be supervision of one kind or another. It may be very vague and sketchy almost nonexistent or it may be very complete and definite. It may also have one of two quite different purposes. If the technical aspects of the job and particularly the resulting end product are uppermost in the mind of the manager the process is called directing. If on the other hand the effect of the supervision on the person's development is uppermost the process is guiding.³⁵ In this chapter the word supervision will be used to cover both aspects. In a home situation the person at the helm unquestionably guides and directs at different times in working with different members of her household. Probably when paid help is involved the process is directing. It is to be expected that she guides her children as they carry out their contributions to household activities. In a student situation the manager or chairman also carries out a little of each process. Nevertheless because she is in

³² I. H. Gross and E. A. Zwemer, *Management in Michigan Homes*, Mich. Agr. Exp. Sta. Bull. 196, June 1944, p. 59.

³³ George C. Homans, *The Human Group* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1950), pp. 150-155.

³⁴ H. J. Locke, *Predicting Adjustment in Marriage* (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1951), p. 176.

³⁵ Paulena Nickell and Jean M. Doney, *op cit*, p. 58.

the top position of a group for only a short period and because she is usually only a chairman of her peers she may be less concerned with guiding the development of the persons under her and more inclined to direct her group to reach the end results she feels to be important

Guidance of Children Guidance of children as workers is a part of their total development. That general topic is not within the province of this book except as it is linked with management in the home. In the matter of step-saving methods of work it is unfair of a mother continually to save her own steps at the expense of her child's work habits. For example the innumerable errands to the store for forgotten articles that some children are asked to make will interfere with their forming the habit of planning ahead and organizing work. Another principle of guidance in work applicable to children is that of at least occasionally giving a child an entire task to do instead of assuming that he will sometime be able to do a whole job effectively if he learns each part separately. Schultz says that although available experimental facts point to the importance of learning a whole unit less than a third of production supervisors and executives with whom he has worked knew this principle²⁸. In the case of a girl learning to cook at home the preparation of an entire simple meal such as a lunch of cream soup sandwiches canned fruit and milk is more conducive to eventual skill in meal preparation than for her to make the sandwiches at one time and the cream soup at another while her mother does the rest.

Analysis of Supervision There are two parts to supervision the proportions varying according to whether guiding or directing is uppermost in the activity. One part relates more to the technical ability of the supervisor the other more to his ability to deal with people. In business and industry it is relatively easy to see the two phases of supervision but even there we do not know as a certainty for example the relative importance of technical ability as compared with ability to deal with people.

Technical Supervision Giving directions is essential to controlling the carrying out of a plan when delegated. Checking is a part of any control step though it plays a more elaborate role when the carrying out of a plan is delegated. It may be done while the work is in progress that is on the job supervision or it may be done later. For all phases of technical supervision to be successful the supervisor must have adequate knowledge of the job to be done.

²⁸ Richard S. Schultz *Wartime Supervision of Workers* (New York: Harper and Row 1943) p. 165.

in evidence. It relieves the tension in a supervisory situation. The homemaker finds a job of her own in the same area in which a worker is occupied. If she can casually ask for help or advice on her own job, it is an easy transition to giving suggestions on the worker's job should such be needed. For example, take the case of a homemaker who has a woman come in to help her with the housework for a few hours each week. She has observed that the woman is not very thorough in her use of the vacuum cleaner; that she rushes through the job. If the homemaker can manage to be casually rearranging the books in the bookcase while the vacuum cleaning is going on, it is an easy matter to suggest slowing down the speed of the cleaner, making the suggestion more than once if necessary. The illustration just given does not show much possibility of asking the helper for advice, but it might be possible to ask whether the bookcase was well placed in the room or to get help in moving it from one location to another.

Later Checking. Checking the worker's results is popularly associated with negative criticism, although it need not be. It is the logical last stage in the guidance process, regardless of whether work has been done satisfactorily or not. Although criticism can be favorable, most of the techniques for offering it take for granted that it is unfavorable.

An understanding of this part of guidance is a phase of the general understanding of human behavior. Schultz discovered how unaware the majority of supervisors were of the resistance of workers to criticism.³⁷ No matter how tactfully it is given, unfavorable criticism blocks to some extent the satisfying of the basic Thomas wish for respect and approval. Because there is common sense acceptance of the importance of the wish for respect, there are some widely accepted principles as to the offering of criticism, many of them designed to minimize its harmful effect upon self-respect. These principles include objectivity, privacy, selection of proper time, and inclusion of praise with unfavorable criticism.

Objectivity means being certain of the facts, criticizing definite pieces of work or situations and commenting without emotion. Criticism of bedmaking is better than criticism of housekeeping in general. The former is more definite. There is less emotional color in checking the grain of a cake against the description of cake texture on an accepted food score card than describing the texture in words with an emotional tone such as *poor* or *bad*.

Closely connected with objectivity is the degree of detail of criticism. It is of little avail to state that a result is unsatisfactory. "This table is not properly set" tells the worker almost nothing. Favorable criticism need

³⁷ Richard S. Schultz, *op cit*, pp. 49-50.

not be so detailed as negative criticism although the worker is no doubt pleased to know that his work is appreciated for its good points and not merely because the manager is good natured or unobservant

Privacy for negative criticism is a requisite if the self respect of the worker alone is considered but may not be suitable if group learning or safety is involved. If a piece of equipment is being mishandled so that there is danger to the group it should be brought to everyone's immediate attention. For praise—that is favorable criticism—privacy may or may not be desirable. If the person praised lacks self confidence or is a less able member of the group public praise may be a great help to his self-esteem. If one person constantly excels his standing in the group is probably higher without frequent public acclaim.

The selection of a favorable time has much to do with the acceptance of criticism by a worker. The wise supervisor rejects periods late in the day, times when either worker or supervisor or both are hurried or when either is tired or half ill. There must be considerable keenness on the part of the supervisor in sensing a favorable time for criticism.

The last of the principles underlying the checking of work is using a favorable beginning or ending or both. To start an interview by mentioning something genuinely favorable in an individual's work sets the right tone. To close with something favorable leaves a pleasant after feeling. If the checking is rather specific and short to include both the favorable beginning and ending is probably unnecessary and may seem labored though there may be opportunity for both.

From the field of industrial management has come an interesting analysis of causes leading to unfavorable checking of work. Four major reasons for unsatisfactory work with over 30 subpoints form a common sense approach to the whole problem. These reasons for error are in essence only three different types of causes: lack of knowledge, lack of ability, and lack of desire to do the work. Lack of knowledge is further subdivided into knowledge of result expected and knowledge of how to do the work. The reasons for error are further grouped into 1) those which can probably be laid at the door of the supervisor and 2) those which are more nearly the worker's responsibility.

A school laboratory incident illustrates some of these types of error. Jane is preparing a fruit salad as the main dish for a luncheon menu planned by Mary. Mary expects each individual salad to be served on a fairly large plate and to consist of separate whole pieces of canned fruit carefully arranged on a bed of head lettuce. The salad dressing is to be passed at table. The salad appears however as a watery mound of finely cut up fruit mixed with very thin dressing served on a single leaf of lettuce on a small plate. Again the possible causes of error are many and varied among them the manager's directions may have been hazy or too

brief or she may not have realized that Jane had never seen a large luncheon fruit salad plate. On her part the worker may not have listened to the directions as given or may have been too weary from doing a term paper the night before to pay close attention.

The handling of each situation will vary with the type of error causing it. The error may point to a change within the supervisor or to one within the worker. The average faulty situation probably involves several types of errors.

<i>Cause of Improper Work*</i>	<i>Supervisor's Responsibility</i>	<i>Worker's Responsibility</i>
Lack of knowledge of what was expected	Full details of job not explained	Details explained but forgotten Did not pay attention to instructions
Lack of knowledge of how to do what was expected	Instructions not clear Instructions too complicated to remember Unawareness of worker's lack of knowledge	Did not use available sources of information
Lack of ability	Delegates job which requires more skill training or ability than worker has Unawareness of worker's physical or mental state of illness, fatigue or worry	Did not take trouble to practice Does not keep physically fit
Lack of desire to do what was expected	Lack of friendly feeling toward worker	Angry with supervisor Did not feel like working Nobody else was doing work Did not see any sense in the job

* This term adapted from Ralph R. Brown, "Psychology of the Supervisor," *Personnel*, Vol. 23 (July 1945), pp. 261-264.

Harmonious Work Relationships It is relatively easy to assemble suggestions for technical procedures in supervision; there are quite definite aids to offer for turning out effective work. The point is, however, that these suggestions must be accepted by the worker before they are of much value. Here human relationships enter. It is evident that much of what has been said earlier involves the ability to communicate ideas effectively.

and that effective communication requires an understanding of the people and the total situation involved

Evidence of Importance Even when the process to be carried out is directing—that is when emphasis is put on production as in industry—human relationships are increasingly stressed as important. Industry has to some extent made this shift in emphasis and now provides personnel managers who specialize in the human factor. The humanizing of supervision was found to be the most important single factor in the widely quoted Western Electric research on variation of external factors in order to increase output.³⁸ No simple single rule for achieving good supervision was found. Roethlisberger's comments on the same research emphasize this human side of supervision.³⁹

What happened was that in the very process of setting the conditions for the test—a so-called controlled experiment—the experimenters had completely altered the social situation of the room. Inadvertently a change had been introduced which was far more important than the planned experimental innovations: the customary supervision in the room had been revolutionized.

Home management differs however and must continue to differ from industrial management. Industry selects the right person for a given job if such a person can be found. The home does not select its members on a basis of competence nor can it do much shifting in household tasks in order to fit square pegs into square holes. If the human quality of supervision has been found so important in industry where production is uppermost and where specialization for a job is possible it is of even greater significance in the home. Here the development of the individual is uppermost and yet he must often fit into a situation for which he is not especially suited.

Unfavorable Factors In the development of a guidance relationship with people interference may result from certain false ideas and also from an ever present desire to be popular. Some of the false ideas as listed by Schultz⁴⁰ are that we work better alone for social ends than in a group; that we excuse others more readily than ourselves; and that we like criticism if it is constructive. Although all of these ideas are wrong their falsity was recognized by only one half to two-thirds of the supervisors who cooperated in Schultz's study. The last fallacy was least recog-

³⁸ Elton Mayo *The Human Problems of an Industrial Civilization* (New York: Macmillan, 1933).

³⁹ F. J. Roethlisberger *Management and Morale* (Cambridge: Harvard University, 1946), pp. 14-15.

⁴⁰ *Op. cit.* p. 48.

nized. If trained supervisors do not know such rather simple guiding principles in working with people the presumption is that they are not widely known.

Another false idea in supervision is that knowledge of accepted work standards is all that is necessary to stimulate the reaching of these standards. As pointed out by Roethlisberger:⁴¹

Standards too can constitute effective human control or can be nothing more than exercises in verbal magic. Whether they are the one or the other depends upon the way they are being used and a knowledge of the situation in which they are being applied.

The worker must in other words accept a standard in addition to knowing what it is for it to be effective in the process of guidance.

The desire to be popular may be an interfering factor in the development of good lasting work relationships. It is very operative in student groups and though not phrased in those words in a family situation something comparable may exist there. The desire for popularity really becomes a third objective in a supervisory situation. Thus the situation may be handled as stated above: first with the product uppermost, second with the development of the worker uppermost, or third with the strengthening of the status of the director uppermost. If the last mentioned objective dominates the situation in the long run no one may gain for the function of direction and guidance is turning out good products or persons—preferably both.

Tact. Difficult as it is in a home situation to carry out successfully any part of supervision without keeping harmonious relationships uppermost in checking work done, tact is especially important. Tact is not as it is often considered to be equivalent to pulling your punches; a more accurate definition would be that it is the practice of handling a situation in such a way as to minimize the destructive possibilities in it and to maximize the constructive ones.⁴²

The development of tact is partly a matter of learning the right words but it is even more a matter of sincerity and of imagination. The common courtesies of Please and Thank you are simple indications of it. They lose their meaning however unless the tone of voice is friendly and sincere. The more the one who is guiding can put himself in the place of the person who is being guided the more he is apt to exercise tact. There is also no substitute for sincerity in human relations. If the right words are superimposed on the wrong feelings they will neither convince nor appeal.

⁴¹ *Op. cit.* p. 180.

⁴² *Selecting Supervisors* (Washington: U. S. Civil Service Commission, 1951), p. 10.

Step 3 Evaluation

The generally accepted principle that everyone should strive to secure increasingly satisfying results with the resources at hand is the core of management. The third step in the managerial process, namely evaluation, is a specific device toward that end. It is a more widely used step in management than controlling, a less commonly used one than planning. About half of the women in a food shopping study⁴³ evaluated the quality of the products they bought. Their criteria of evaluation were however vague.

This step consists of looking back over the steps of planning and controlling, the carrying out of the plan, to recognize that a good or a poor job has been done, either absolutely or in relation to given conditions, and to determine as accurately as possible how good a job has been done. Evaluation is similar to checking in the control step, but checking is a quick step-by-step appraisal of a plan in action, while evaluation as a separate step in management involves a complete review of what has already taken place with a view toward better management in the future.

Lewin⁴⁴ sees four purposes in evaluation: 1) to see what has been achieved; 2) to serve as a basis for the next plan; 3) to serve as a basis for modifying the overall plan; and 4) to gain new general insight. Parsons⁴⁵ functional imperative of latency in social action suggests a fifth purpose—the value of a pause between goal-seeking actions for sorting out consequences to those concerned.

IMPORTANCE

Its purposes indicate its importance. Evaluation tends to help one get away from patterned thinking toward oneself and others, to see a situation freshly. Perhaps the situation is worse than was thought, perhaps it is better. If evaluation from more than one source is summarized and interpreted, we can better see situations in the light in which they appear to others. Industry expresses its appreciation of the evaluation step in the words of Walters⁴⁶: Without some proof or measure of its performance, management has not completed its job. In more philosophical language, the importance of recognizing excellence in one's work has been expressed

⁴³ O'Brien *op cit* p. 11.

⁴⁴ Kurt Lewin, *Group Decision and Social Change*, in E. E. Maccoby, T. M. Newcomb and E. L. Hartley, Eds., *Readings in Social Psychology*, 3d ed. (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1958), pp. 200-201.

⁴⁵ Chandler Morse, *The Functional Imperatives*, in Max Black, Ed., *The Social Theories of Talcott Parsons* (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice Hall, 1961), p. 119.

⁴⁶ J. E. Walters, *Modern Management* (New York: Wiley, 1937), p. 293.

thus From the time when the morning stars sang together and Jehovah saw that His work was good the consciousness of work well done has remained the transcendent spiritual experience Thus the good house keeper shares with all other good workers ⁴⁷

Relationship to Goals Fundamental to all evaluation are the values goals and standards which an individual consciously or unconsciously possesses It is impossible to check how far one has gone without employing a definite end point or objective Goals however must be specific to serve in evaluation If the goal at a student faculty party was to get to know the faculty was it 1) to meet all the faculty or 2) to talk a long time with a person not previously known so you really knew something about the person or 3) to talk with someone already known so as to learn to know the person better?

Appraisal in terms of long term goals and if possible in terms of values has another important function namely creating an atmosphere favorable to evaluation of more immediate goals One might as well admit that some steps of the management process are more favorably viewed than others Many if not most people enjoy planning They can look toward the future and their hopes can run high Evaluation is the last stage of the management process and the one in which we look backward to see what actually has been accomplished Few of us like to view our achievements critically because in many cases they fall short of what we had planned or at least hoped

In evaluating it is comforting to remember that even if hindsight is better than foresight and it reveals that a better alternative might have been chosen at some point in making or carrying out a plan still very seldom would a kingdom have been lost for lack of a nail and that in most instances a different alternative chosen would not drastically have altered the success or failure of a complete plan ⁴⁸

Evaluation rightly takes its place as a necessary preliminary to the next similar plan rather than as finale to the one that is already completed Thus it becomes easier to be objective about evaluation because by so doing the next plan may be improved

TYPES

There are two types of informal evaluation the over all variety and a more detailed kind The first recognizing the general quality of the job done may be quite casual Without much analytical thinking a

⁴⁷ Ellen Chatte "The Spiritual Values of Good Housekeeping" *Good Housekeeping* Vol LXIV (April 1917) pp. 132-133

⁴⁸ S. Mon. *A Humanistic Behavior* op cit p. 69

manager may recognize a job as good in itself or as good in relation to given conditions. For example, good time management is doubtless present when day after day a woman is fresh and unhurried and yet accomplishes all that she sets out to do. A piece of management may also be recognized as good if it makes the best use of existing conditions. The same woman who normally gets everything done may on some special days consciously leave out certain activities. Her management may still be good if she has retained the most important activities. She has fitted means to ends. In both these instances the manager should receive a higher degree of satisfaction from conscious knowledge of what she has done and its accomplishment.

The more detailed type of evaluation that is determining the degree of excellence of the managerial job is a further step which is more revealing than the first. It is an attempt toward accuracy of judgment and consists of the separate evaluation of different parts of management. The devices used indicate measurement on a scale at least to the extent of comparative descriptive words. To illustrate, a woman who thinks carefully over her general time management may decide she takes longer than necessary on some jobs and hence would only rate average on that aspect. On the other hand, her promptness in starting work and her judgment on sequence of jobs are both excellent, thereby justifying the general rating of good on time management.

If one is working toward improvement following evaluation, detailed appraisal is very necessary. Without breaking down time management into various aspects, attempting improvement is like getting on a horse and riding in all directions at once. The woman described above should obviously work toward more effective performance if she wishes to improve her utilization of time. Her neighbor may be an efficient worker once she gets started, but her need for improvement might lie in initiating an activity.

TECHNIQUES IN SELF EVALUATION

Evaluation of management in group or personal living is usually performed by those who are doing the managing. In other words, life situations involve a large amount of self-evaluation. Most of the techniques that have been developed, however, come from industry or the educational world where relatively large numbers of people are compared. The home manager is often an isolated worker and informal living groups are usually small. Hence it is relatively difficult to be very objective in this self-evaluation. Although it is impossible for anyone to be completely objective in self-evaluation, it is a worthwhile activity. Family and group members may of course help each other toward objectivity.

Informally a homemaker or group may practice self-evaluation by checking how good a job of management has been done. This may be accomplished through comparing one's own practices with those of others by means of observation, reflection, and discussion. The degree of success attained by this method depends upon two factors: keenness of observation and ability to analyze the cause and significance of the differences observed. A person usually observes more keenly if he decides ahead of time what points are to be noted. Sometimes the homemaker can obtain or devise for herself a check list of items to observe. Even though she may not use the list while engaged in the day's activities, her reflection while making it will be helpful in calling significant points to mind. It is a common practice for homemakers to exchange notes on such subjects as recipes and methods of work, but the intangible aspects of the managerial process are more difficult to compare. In the case of some fairly intimate subjects, such as allocation of money, discussion is almost taboo. Nevertheless, evidences both of the managerial process and of its results can be compared by those who are interested enough to develop a sensitivity to them.

A second method for self-evaluation is to compare one's own standards to cooperatively set up standards. The homemaker may have opportunities for so doing if she looks for them. A group of three young mothers cooperate by taking turns caring for their babies during the afternoon so that each may be free on certain days for other activities. Before starting the venture they outline in some detail what each would be expected to do on her day as nursemaid. In so doing, each has become aware of some of the standards of the others. The final plan is a composite of the group's ideas and has given each an opportunity for evaluating her own.

A third method for informal self-evaluation is to ask oneself the question, "What would I change if I had this to do over again?" This question can apply either to an individual or to a group. While the question is a very general one, the person doing the evaluation can be quite analytical in determining whether the desired changes are due to faulty planning, to faulty control, or perhaps to standards and goals that are unreasonable.

Another method of evaluating oneself informally is through the use of a diary. One young homemaker with no children keeps a brief diary of all the things she does each day—not just the unusual. To say to herself, "I've finished my morning's work," does not sound like a big achievement, but to see the many diversified things she has done gives her a feeling of accomplishment. Furthermore, she admits that on some days she has not worked to her capacity. While decisions made in the evaluating process are not noted, the record of things done initiates subjective reactions which are helpful in evaluating her use of time.

The diary method is related to the use of a progress chart. The latter is a somewhat more specific and formal device in evaluation but still applicable to a home situation. It consists of a periodical appraisal of a repetitive job ability or personal quality. Each appraisal is complete in itself but the sequence of appraisals makes possible comparisons and shows trends. For example, a homemaker who has decided to evaluate her bedmaking may at the end of the week be able to say that her product is excellent and her time and energy spent a minimum. From the standpoint of evaluation, the homemaker has a better perspective if she can see changes that have occurred. At the beginning of the week her product was excellent but the time and energy costs were high. As she attempted to save time and energy she temporarily sacrificed the quality of the product but finally she achieved both goals—a good product and low time and energy costs.

As was indicated, the progress chart may consist of a rating such as unacceptable, acceptable, good, superior, or it may consist of recording objective data. An example is that of the homemaker or student who is trying to lose weight. She may weigh once a week, note gains or losses and evaluate her food intake and activities for the past week. She may keep a record only of the number of times she eats between meals, constantly attempting to decrease them. Even in the case of such intangibles as personal characteristics, the progress chart may be used. For instance, from day to day an individual can record the number of times he lost his temper or the number of times he was noticeably untactful. True, the provocation in one situation may be greater than in another but this can be recognized in interpreting the progress chart. More formal methods of evaluating management are described in Chapter 15, *The Teaching of Home Management*, and rating scales may be found in the Appendix.

Whatever method of self-evaluation is used, if a homemaker's goal is to improve her management, there are several possible approaches, none of them mutually exclusive. A homemaker or anyone else can evaluate 1) management in relation to standards and goals to be reached, 2) the process of management, 3) her own characteristics related to managerial ability, or 4) management in relation to a specific resource. In any of these approaches, motivation for change is essential. Otherwise the evaluation is mechanical and bears no fruit. Only the evaluation of the process of management will be touched upon here.

EVALUATION OF THE PROCESS OF MANAGEMENT

Evaluating the process of management means looking critically at each of its three steps, including the third one, evaluation itself, primarily by setting up questions for the individual or group to answer.

In regard to planning the acid test is of course did it work?

II it worked

Did it work smoothly with little control necessary?

Did it work because the control was good?

If it did not work why?

Was it detailed enough?

Did unforeseen conditions arise so that it could not work?

With more forethought could these conditions have been foreseen?

Was the plan unsuccessful because some special knowledge was lacking?

For the control step suitable questions differ somewhat according to the resource used and to whether the manager performs the task herself or supervises the work of others. Questions might be

Did I keep my goal in mind while I was carrying out the plan?

Did I watch to see how the time was going? Or the money? Or whatever resource was being used?

Did I remember to use effective methods of work to avoid fatigue? Effective methods of checking the outgo of money?

Did I note how my activities fitted in with the interests and needs of the other members of my family or my group?

In regard to supervision

Did my helpers generally understand my directions?

If I checked their work and found it unsatisfactory what causes of this were my responsibility?

Did my family members work willingly with me?

Have I changed my paid helpers frequently? If so why?

The following questions relate to appraisal of the evaluation step in management

Did I consciously look back to see how effective my management was?

Were my goals reasonable? Did I foolishly strive for perfection?

How clearly and honestly did I see the strengths and weaknesses in my management?

In the light of my present knowledge would some alternative have been better than the one I chose?

Which of my weaker points can I improve the next time I have a similar managerial problem?

Did I allow myself to become too involved in details?

Do I accept gracefully any weaknesses that cannot be remedied?

Am I sure they cannot be remedied?

Although the evaluation of home management is largely a personal matter an attempt was made to measure it in a group of 382 Michigan

homemakers through the use of a formal scoring device based partly on research.⁴⁸ A perfect score was arbitrarily set at 300 points. The group as a whole averaged 148 points—roughly one half of the highest possible score. The women ranged from a low of about 100 to a high of over 200. It seemed to make little difference in average score whether the family was large or small⁵⁰ or whether they lived on a farm or in a village (city families were not studied). Among the factors which did influence the managerial score besides income which is discussed elsewhere were age and experience, occupation before marriage and education. The expectation that the average score would increase with age was true only up through the fifth decade of life. After that scores dropped.⁵¹ Scores averaged lowest for the woman who had been an unskilled worker before her marriage and highest for the former professional woman. There was a progression of average scores from 102 for a woman with a third grade education to a high of 192 for a woman with a college degree and one year of graduate work.⁵² The highest individual score did not, however, belong to the woman with the largest amount of education. College and extension training in home economics were linked with higher average scores. A similar finding on the influence of college and extension training is reported by Thorpe.⁵³

THE MANAGEMENT PROCESS IN FAMILIES AND SMALL GROUPS

In families and small groups management may be done chiefly by one person, but increasingly it is being performed by several members. In order for it to be a joint process, some kind of face-to-face meeting is unavoidable. Such a meeting probably is used more for making plans than for the other two steps in management, but it is equally effective for the third step—evaluation. Observation indicates that the control of the carrying out of a plan is more apt to be the responsibility of one person than of a group.

A loose organization for conducting management activities in a family is called—at least in print—a family council. Ideally all members of the family take part in it as soon as they are old enough to have opinions concerning the problems of the group and to express those opinions. There is some question in the authors' minds as to whether the term

⁴⁸ Irma H. Gross, *Measuring Home Management*, Mich. Agr. Exp. Sta. Circular Bull. 211, March 1948.

⁵⁰ Small families scored higher in O'Brien and Price, *op cit*, p. 719.

⁵¹ This finding supported in *Ibid.*, p. 718.

⁵² This finding supported in *Ibid.*, p. 718.

⁵³ Thorpe and Gross, *op cit*, p. 301.

council should really be applied to business meetings of a small family group. It suggests greater formality than is necessary or desirable. Perhaps in large families something approaching a formal meeting is essential, but the council is definitely not the place for the family members to learn parliamentary order. On the contrary, meetings should be as informal as possible and may be called by any person who needs the advice or the permission of the group in solving a problem, with perhaps a solitary requirement that the meeting be held at a time when all can be present. An after-dinner chat around the dining room table may end in a decision if everyone is present or lead to the comment, "We'd better see if we can find a time when everyone can talk this over." Spontaneity must be encouraged in the family council, and it will exist only if every person feels that his ideas will be heard and considered, although the verdict of the group may, in the end, be different from his own.

The council may function under the leadership of no one person, or the leadership may rotate from one to another. Recognition should be made of the abilities of the various members, and the opinion of a person having the greatest experience in a certain area may carry greater weight than that of an older but inexperienced person. For example, June, a college senior, may be of greater help in choosing types of clothes for Sue, who is just entering college, than her mother, while Mother gives sounder advice on quality of materials and workmanship.

Function of Council in Management

The function of the family council as a managerial group has not received the emphasis it deserves. The most common use of the family council in the area of planning has perhaps been in the making of budgets. In some cases, budgeting has been a mere distribution of income with little thought to the attainment of the long-term goals of the family. These goals, consciously thought through, will be reflected in the resulting plan. Although a financial plan appears at first to be concerned only with money matters, it indicates, for example, in the type of recreation and reading materials allowed, for the kinds of interests which will be developed by the family. The way family time will be used may also be affected if they decide that it is more important for Sam to finish high school rather than to take a full-time job that would add to family income. Thus a plan growing out of the family council becomes a plan for family living, rather than a mere financial plan.

The family may also plan the work of the household in the family council. The favorable attitudes a child may develop toward work are undoubtedly the most important end result of his work experiences in the home. As Lawrence Frank points out, the child carries his early

family experience into his whole life career—the family accompanies the child [figuratively speaking] wherever he goes—to school—or to work.⁵⁴ What needs to be done what is the responsibility of each person when must work be done in order to coordinate parts what quality of work is acceptable to the family—all these questions may be decided and if necessary revised in the family council

No two family councils will function in exactly the same manner and they may vary widely in the quality of their decisions and the success of their plans. The finest plan for the performance of household tasks will not be well executed if the family members have not achieved to some extent certain necessary mechanical skills. Neither will the family council be a successful device in cementing good family relations if the members lack working knowledge of group behavior. On the other hand both *mechanical skills and knowledge of group behavior can be developed* and the first step toward successful family living may be the recognition in the family council of their importance and the formulation of a plan for working toward them.

SUMMARY

Although there is not general agreement on the steps in the management process many disciplines recognize the importance of analyzing it.

In home management the process may be analyzed as occurring in three steps—planning controlling the plan as it is being carried out and evaluating. All the steps involve decision making. Logically these steps occur in a time sequence but in practice there is much overlapping. The process is spiral. Step 3 of one plan leading into Step 1 of a repeated or a related plan.

Since the process of management is mental and much of it may take place during some physical activity it is difficult to study. This is especially true if as in a home the planner and performer are the same person.

Of the three steps in management planning is the best recognized and perhaps the oldest. Some research evidence exists to show the value as well as the frequency of planning.

Least attention has been paid to the control step which includes energizing or putting the plan into action checking to see how the plan is working and adjusting the plan when necessary all involving fresh decisions.

When the carrying out of a plan is delegated to others the need of

⁵⁴ Lawrence M. Frank. *The Philosophy of Home Management. Proceedings of the Seventh International Management Congress. Home Management Papers Vol. 7 (1938) pp. 3-5.*

supervision arises as a part of the control step. Technical supervision consists in giving directions and checking results. The ability to work with people is as essential in supervision as technical competence.

The evaluation step (usually self-evaluation) is carried out very informally in homes and other living situations and may be either quite general or very detailed. The latter is essential as one looks forward to change. To be meaningful, evaluation must be related to specific goals.

Management in homes is increasingly being carried out by several members of the family or small group, not just one. To make plans jointly and to proceed with them smoothly, members must find opportunities for informal meetings, sometimes called family councils.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

Management Process

1. Think of a family you know well. How conscious is this family of the process of management? What evidence is there to show that they plan? That they control their plan in action? That they evaluate the results?
2. Which of the three steps in the managerial process is most easily evaluated? Why?
3. Give an example of coordination in a plan you have recently made. Was further coordination required in the control step of carrying out the plan?
4. Evaluate a group project such as
 - a. Entertaining the mothers of the students
 - b. The group's part in a progressive dinner
 - c. The family budget
5. Check your own qualities as a manager or chairman in situations other than in your home or in the home management house. If you appear to be a better or poorer manager in these situations than at home, how can you explain this?
6. Rate the managerial practices in your home using the short rating scale for homemakers given in the Appendix. Compare the rating of your home with the rating of two other homes.
7. (For home management house students.) On the basis of the score card on pages 562-567 of the Appendix, make a forecast of your achievement in the course.
8. Make a rating sheet dealing with the use of time or energy or some other aspect of management which can be used for self-evaluation or for rating by others.
9. Using the rating sheet developed in No. 8 above, rate yourself and have several other people who have had the opportunity to observe you in this

area rate you anonymously Compare your own rating with the composite rating of the group What can you gain from such a comparison?

- III Two similar families are planning a two-week summer vacation One family achieves its goal the other does not although no outside influences such as loss of income enter in Discuss possible differences in management to account for the results
- 11 Illustrate each step in the managerial process in an experience you have had Each step may be in a different experience
- 12 Describe two managers whom you know—one you consider good one you consider poor In which of the three steps in management is the good one strongest? The poor one weakest?

Supervision

- 1 Compare the problems of supervision in a home management course with those in a
 - a Home without paid help
 - b Home with paid help

GIVING DIRECTIONS

- 2 Select a supervisory situation in a home or a college course Have each of several people write out a set of directions to cover the situation—for example cleaning a food storage area
 - a Compare the directions on the bases given in the text pages 102-103
 - b If the directions differ sufficiently act out each set in pantomime and note resulting differences
- 3 Have one person work out a set of directions involving at least three steps Let her give them orally to one person That person then gives them orally to B who was not present when they were first given B repeats them to C and so on until they have been passed on to five different persons no one of whom heard them more than once The last person in the chain then compares what was told her with what was originally said What may be learned from such an exercise?
- 4 A student manager is about to give directions for setting up a buffet table In a sociodrama (an unrehearsed dramatizing of a situation) show variations in directions to be given to
 - a A very sensitive helper
 - b A person whose feelings are not easily hurtWhat evidence is there in the directions that the manager attempted to identify herself with the worker?

CHECKING RESULTS

- 5 Perform a sociodrama covering one of the following situations
 - a Checking a satisfactory dishwashing job
 - b Checking unsatisfactory condition of work area while cooking
 - c Checking bathroom care
 - d Evaluating the accuracy with which certain directions were followed
- 6 Recall or observe a situation where a criticism was made. Analyze this situation using the criteria on page 106.

OVER ALL SUPERVISION

- 7 The goal is to secure change in some specific task of each member of a household or work group. The change should concern work in which the method or result of the performer is not satisfactory to the manager. Devise a means in each case for giving directions, checking results with the worker and evaluating in terms of improvement. See chart below. The worker may or may not know that a change is being attempted. The change planned should be very definite and not elaborate—for example, temperature of water served at meals, correct storage of green vegetables, laying of a fire or care of cleaning tools.

Record of Change

Worker	Change Selected
--------	-----------------

Directions given

Form

Time given in relation to performance of task

Number of repetitions necessary

Method of checking with performer

Evaluation of results

No change evident

Some improvement

Very satisfactory change

- 8 Study of guidance as observed by worker. This application is better done at some time other than when the preceding experience is being carried out. It is a more effective check when the supervisor is not working on special assignments. The worker is to keep track of all forms of guidance offered during a given period of time—at least three or four days. The worker may give in full narrative form any guidance offered or the record form below may be used. In either case definite instances are important to back up judgments. For example, if directions were tactfully given concerning the arrangement of flowers, the record should show, "Manager said, 'Shall we try the gray pottery bowl and the green glass vase for the daffodils? Which do you prefer?'"

Record of Guidance

Directions received concerning

Form

Time in relation to carrying them out

Were they clear and understandable?

(if possible give exact words)

Were they tactful?

Justify your rating

Above average

Average

Below average

On the job guidance—checking of methods while working

Points criticized (both favorable and unfavorable)

Helpful suggestions made

Did the manager change her mind after giving directions? How frequently?

Checking of results

Points criticized (both favorable and unfavorable)

Helpful suggestions made

Were the results expected suitable to the time available for the work?

Too much time required

About right

Manager satisfied with mediocre results though more time was available

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- BRADFORD Lawrence A and JOHNSON Glenn L. *Farm Management Analysis* (New York Wiley 1953)
- CUSHMAN Ella *Management in Homes* (New York Macmillan 1945)
- DEACON Ruth and BRATTON Esther Crew *Home Management Focus and Function* *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 54 No 9 (November 1962) pp 763 766
- DICKINS Dorothy *Effects of Good Home Management in Family Living* *Mississippi State College Agr Exp Sta Bull* 380 May 1943
- GROSS Irma H *Measuring Home Management* *Mich Agr Exp Sta Circ. Bull* 211 1948
- HOMANS George C *The Human Group* (New York Harcourt Brace and World 1950)
- KNOLL, Marjorie M *Toward a Conceptual Framework in Home Management* *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 55 No 5 (May 1963) pp 335 339
- LEE Dorothy *Discrepancies in the Teaching of American Culture* George D Spindler Ed *Education and Anthropology* (Stanford University Press Palo Alto 1955)
- LEWIN Kurt, *Group Decision and Social Change* in E E Maccoby T M Newcomb and F L Hartley Eds. *Readings in Social Psychology* 3d Ed (New York Holt Rinehart and Winston 1958) pp 197 211

- LITCHFIELD Edward H. "Notes on a General Theory of Administration" *Administrative Science Quarterly* Vol 1 No 1 (June 1956) pp 3-29
- LUNDBERG Craig C. "Administrative Decisions: A Scheme for Analysis," *Journal of the Academy of Management* Vol 5 No 2 (August 1962) pp 165-178
- MALONE C. C. and MALONE L. H. *Decision Making and Management for Farm and Home* (Ames Iowa State College Press 1958)
- MAYO Elton *The Human Problems of an Industrial Civilization* (New York Macmillan 1933)
- MORSE Chandler "The Functional Imperatives," in Max Black Ed. *The Social Theories of Talcott Parsons* (Englewood Cliffs N J Prentice Hall 1961)
- NEWMAN William H. *Administrative Action* (Englewood Cliffs N J Prentice-Hall 1951)
- and C. E. Summer Jr. *The Process of Management* (Englewood Cliffs, N J Prentice Hall 1961)
- NICKELL Paulena and DORSEY Jean M. *Management in Family Living* 2d Ed. (New York Wiley 1950)
- O'BRIEN Carol B. "The Managerial Process Used in Food Shopping" *Mich Agr Exp Sta Tech Bull* 282 January 1961
- and PRICE Dorothy Z. "An Investigation of the Traditional Concept of Management" *Quarterly Bulletin Mich. Agr Exp Sta.*, Vol 44 No 4 (May 1962) pp 714-725
- Proceedings of the Conference on Teaching Home Management* sponsored by the Family Economics—Home Management Sections of the American Home Economics Association at Purdue University July 13 1962 Distributed by the American Home Economics Association
- SCHLATER Jean Davis and VINCENT Warren H. "Graduate Interdisciplinary Course in Management" *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 54 No 9 (November 1962) pp 782-784
- SCHULTZ Richard S. *Wartime Supervision of Workers* (New York Harper and Row 1943)
- SIMON Herbert A. *The New Science of Management Decision* (New York Harper and Row 1960)
- THORPE, Alice C. and GROSS Irma H. "Managerial Practices in the Homes of Married Students at Michigan State College" *Quarterly Bull Mich Agr Exp Sta* Vol 32 (February 1950)

5

Resources

From our definition of management it is clear that the resources of the family are used to achieve the family's goals and that the decisions made in management determine how these resources will be used. The aim of effective management is to use the family's resources in a way that will bring the greatest satisfaction to the family. There is a question in the minds of some whether *manage* is a transitive or an intransitive verb but the majority agree that it is transitive that one manages something namely resources. Although there is also some question as to whether or not time is a true resource¹ it is included as one here.

The present chapter will include possible classifications of resources a discussion of similarities among all resources including a description of the managerial process applied to materials as an example of the fact that the process can be used with all resources and some guides for their use to increase satisfaction.

CLASSIFICATION OF RESOURCES

There are various classifications of resources. The one used in this chapter that of human and nonhuman resources emphasizes the importance to management of the human resources that is those which are inherent in persons. A threefold classification used at the Home Economics Seminar at French Lick, Indiana, in July 1961² is as follows:

Technological resources as having to do with *things*. May be natural or manufactured. Individuals must initiate this.

Social resources as having to do with *things* and *people* other than the manager(s). Examples: a restaurant, a loan company, a church.

Covert intangible or personal resources as having to do with feelings, attitudes, beliefs, emotions, sentiments, interpersonal relationships between individuals.

¹ See Chapter 8 "Time" pp. 215-216.

² Home Economics Seminar at French Lick, Indiana, July 1961. Progress report available from College of Home Economics, Mich. State Univ., p. 33.

Some of the human resources are less tangible than others and this grouping tends to highlight the less frequently recognized ones. According to this breakdown human resources include time energy interests abilities skills knowledge and attitudes. Nonhuman resources are money material goods and community facilities thus:

<i>Human Resources</i>		<i>Nonhuman Resources</i>	
	<i>Examples</i>		<i>Examples</i>
Time	An hour a day a week a lifetime	Material goods	Food An owned home Car
Energy	Energy needed for walking upstairs	Money	Savings Wages Income on investments
Interests	In gardening music or food preparation	Community facilities	Libraries Parks Shopping facilities
Abilities or skills	Intellectual ability or skill in knitting		
Knowledge	Information needed in selecting clothing Understanding principles of management		
Attitudes	Willingness to accept change Optimism		

It is important to recognize and use all kind of resources in the achievement of family goals. Community resources include some human resources (e.g. educational facilities health services and consultant services such as family counseling agencies) but for the most part their contribution is in the form of material goods such as parks libraries and shopping and recreational facilities. Communities differ greatly in the resources they provide. One city may provide ample housing another may not. Recreational facilities may range from the legitimate theater in some communities to nothing but taverns in others.

We are not always accustomed to thinking of abilities and interests of family members as resources but in concrete instances we know they are just that. The man who is handy about the house and tinkers successfully with the house plumbing has an ability that is a genuine resource. The woman who is artistic and adds individuality to ordinary and inexpensive articles of clothing or house furnishings has a valuable resource. The teenage daughter who becomes interested in gardening through her school experiences has added to the resources of her family. Perhaps the least tangible group of resources consists of attitudes. A family that is willing to accept a wide variety of foods or one that welcomes common and inexpensive foods such as carrots turnips and so forth is a great asset to the homemaker who is attempting to provide

adequate meals on a limited income. Another example of an attitude serving as a resource is that of the homemaker who finds homemaking a challenging vital experience as opposed to the woman who feels above such mundane activities.

A homemaker planning meals will also make use of the human resource knowledge. Her task will be made easier to the degree that she possesses and uses knowledge of what is an adequate diet, what are inexpensive sources of the various food needs where she can purchase them least expensively and so forth. The homemaker and other family members have still another resource in the household skills they have developed. For example, a skilled homemaker can make a pie more easily, more rapidly and with better results than one who has never achieved this particular skill.

The management of material goods presents a most complicated problem today. First, they range from food mixers to safety pins, from fabric rugs to linoleum, from clothing to pens and pencils, and from highly perishable foods to books. In general, each kind of article requires different treatment if it is to continue to fulfill its function. This is true even when two articles are constructed of the same material, for example, woolen blankets and woolen rugs, or when two articles are intended for the same use but made of different materials, as in sweaters made of wool compared with those made of orlon. Moreover, materials are changing constantly, bringing new characteristics which may or may not be advantageous and which require different treatment from that to which the family is accustomed.

The management of a single material may be so complex as to burgeon into a specialty. For example, in relation to food alone, college curricula have developed in food preparation, nutrition, food economics, and food technology.

SIMILARITIES AMONG ALL RESOURCES

Many of the underlying considerations in the use of all resources are the same. Any seeming unbalance in the amount of space allotted to various resources is not due to a feeling on the part of the authors that one resource is necessarily more important than another; it reflects clearly the fact that much more is known about some than about others. More factual information is available concerning money than any other resource.

Resources are similar in that they all are useful; they are all limited; their use is interrelated; the managerial process is applicable to all resources; and finally, most important, the quality of life an individual achieves is dependent upon his use of them.

All Resources Useful

Resources are recognized as such only after uses are found for them. It is said that a dictionary at the turn of the century defined uranium as a useless white metal. Also the usefulness or value of a given characteristic or element often may be recognized only in relation to a specific goal. Willingness to try new things may seem to be just one of many characteristics which give Mary her individual personality yet when she decides to apply for an overseas teaching assignment this is a resource which is frequently mentioned by those recommending her for such a position.

All Resources Limited

The second way in which resources are alike is that they are all limited. If resources were unlimited management would be unnecessary. A decrease in resources usually brings an increased appreciation of the importance of management. Actually resources become important in proportion to the degree in which they are limited. The inevitability of these limitations must be accepted. Before she can make and carry out plans that will work the woman who constantly complains because her work is unfinished at the day's end must actually accept the fact that no one can push time backward and that nowhere can she beg, borrow or steal more time.

Limits like the uses of available resources must be assessed in relation to specific goals. Time may flow on endlessly yet there may be only one hour remaining in which to prepare a dessert for dinner. Occasionally as in our affluent society it appears that resources are so plentiful that management is not necessary. However as the limitations upon one resource become less stringent the limits on others hitherto unnoticed become apparent. The woman who has never had sufficient time may find that when her family leaves home she is limited not in time but rather in satisfying interests.

QUANTITATIVE LIMITS

Different resources vary in their limitations and in the accuracy with which these differences can be measured.³ Time is the most completely limited resource quantitatively speaking since no day can contain more than 24 hours nor can any of these hours be saved. Discussion of time

³ Ruth E. Deacon, "Home Management: Focus and Function," *Journal of Home Economics*, Vol. 54, No. 9 (November 1962), p. 761.

planning is simplified by the fact that the limit is the same for everyone although the demands upon it differ among individuals

Energy too is a limited resource differing from time in that the amount of energy available varies greatly from person to person. Though it is impractical to measure the limits of energy objectively one constantly recognizes these differences by saying for example that a certain job is too heavy for one person yet expecting another to do it. There is insufficient knowledge at present to determine how the limits of energy are set by the body. New information points to the fact that the limits of energy may not be as important to some homemakers as are their attitudes toward their work. However it is popularly assumed that energy may be stored for future use since common sense suggests that if a person does not exhaust himself today he can do more work tomorrow. Obviously energy does not accumulate proportionately. If a man does nothing today he cannot then be expected to do the work of two men tomorrow. The limitations of energy are difficult for an individual to accept because one person may have less than others and because he may have once had a great deal more himself.

The limits of money are more easily compared in objective terms. The amount of this resource varies greatly from person to person and for an individual in different periods of his life. Money differs from other resources in that it is possible to obtain more. If a man is willing to work more hours of the day he can if work is available earn a larger income. Money can be saved from one time until a period when need is greater or if need arises money can sometimes be borrowed.

The abilities of the family members another important resource are also limited. The first limit is set by the inherent capacities of the individual the second by training which develops those capacities. No amount of training can make a great pianist of an untalented person on the other hand a gifted person may not develop fully because of lack of opportunity for using his talents. Many families have never made full use of family abilities because of lack of proper stimuli.

The material goods a family possesses are limited by two factors the amount of money available for their purchase (whether in the past or now) and the ability and opportunity for the family members to produce the materials themselves. Therefore this resource is dependent upon the extent to which other resources—talent time energy and money—are available yet once possessed material goods are a resource in themselves. For example a formerly wealthy family made their lovely summer home into an inn their only source of income after a business failure. The fact that ownership of a winter coat frees money for other uses is a homelier example of a material good as a resource. Though the factors limiting the various resources differ all limitations must be accepted before suc

cessful decisions can be made and before techniques of management can be applied

Up to a certain point the limitation of resources is a challenge although people vary in the degree to which they accept this challenge. When however needed resources are inadequate or even completely lacking there is little reason to struggle to achieve a goal which is clearly unattainable.

QUALITATIVE LIMITS

While the most obvious limitations of resources are quantitative there are also differences and limitations in the quality of some of them particularly in the area of material goods. For example one family may possess home furnishings which are durable and aesthetically satisfying while another family may own furniture which has neither of these characteristics. Communities can readily be compared as to the quality of services provided in such simple matters as dry cleaning or commercial laundry facilities and even education. Although there are quantitative differences in abilities qualitative differences if they exist are not commonly measurable.

Interrelatedness of Resources

Decisions in family or group living deal not only with the use of individual resources but with their interrelationship. As a matter of fact it is difficult to discuss the less tangible resources such as interests and abilities apart from the more tangible ones. An ability cannot be expressed without using time, some energy and frequently materials. When a young couple decides to cut furniture costs by refinishing sturdy used pieces they have also decided how a considerable portion of their free time will be spent. On the other hand if they decide to purchase all their furniture and pay for it from current income they may at the same time have determined that little money will be available for recreation. Thus they will need to find other ways to provide for interesting leisure.

Decisions concerning the materials which a family possesses or wishes to possess are interwoven with decisions concerning all the other resources. Since many material goods are purchased they are particularly related to the use of money. Articles can also be procured through the use of resources other than money. For example fruits and vegetables can be produced at little cost in money if time, energy and knowledge are used in gardening. The interrelationship of materials with other resources is evident in the following chapters where the various other resources are highlighted. In the chapter on work simplification the role

of equipment and of raw materials in reducing the time and motions required for doing a task will be introduced. Interests and abilities not only determine what goods are needed to achieve desired goals but also how effectively other materials will be used. A woman with skill in food preparation may concoct a delicious salad from a bit of lettuce, a few leaves of fresh spinach and some left-over cooked vegetables while another less imaginative person might have felt that there was not enough lettuce to make a salad.

It is interesting to note the interrelatedness of resources by observing the effect of introducing a single material good into family life. One study of the impact of television⁴ showed changes in the use of time in use of money for food (different food purchased for meals and more snacks) and less use of money for entertainment (hospitality and amusements outside the home).

In management the total picture of the interrelated use of resources is no doubt more important than the use of any specific one. Indeed it is the sum total of resources available for reaching a particular goal which usually determines whether or not that goal will be reached. Yet it is important to note that absence or too little of a single resource may be crucial in determining success or failure in attaining a goal although other resources are readily available. The fact that many alternative uses are possible presents so complex a pattern that it is beyond the ability of most people to attack the problem from the point of view of the interrelationships of all resources. However throughout this book as the separate resources are discussed the interrelationship of each with others will be noted.

Historical changes in attitudes toward tangible and intangible resources are interesting reflecting as they do the fact that some resources were at one time considered much less important than others as well as emphasizing the degree of interrelationship which is accepted today.

PHILOSOPHY TOWARD RESOURCES

Of primary importance in determining the management of resources is the philosophy of the individual or group toward these resources. An individual's philosophy concerning resources is often stated in terms of the relative importance to him of material things compared to the other less tangible resources such as time and energy and compared to the effect upon the people concerned. A philosophy of resources usually reflects the attitudes of the larger social group of which the individual or

⁴ Clara T. Appell *An Exploration of Television Impact Upon Middle Class Family Life As Measured by an Opinion Questionnaire of 150 Families* Doctoral Type C Project Teachers College Columbia University 1959

is careful in her usage of food can include a few of the extras that make menus interesting

Importance of People Versus Things Even later than the emphasis on the importance of time and energy came the recognition that conservation of materials must be viewed in light of its general effect upon the people involved. If there is a child of toddling age in the home or in the home management house, the furnishings should not bar his association with the family because of possible danger to them or to him. There is another consideration in the careful use of certain furnishings, even by adults. In the common rooms, especially the living room, where family and group associations are formed, the presence of some object that constantly requires concern may mar the human fellowship that should prevail.

Harriet Beecher Stowe's charming essay on "The Ravages of a Carpet" describes the far reaching effects of the purchase of a new carpet for the friendly hospitable parlor of the Crowfield family.⁸ Because curtains were drawn to prevent fading of the carpet, use of the open fireplace was discontinued to avoid soiling the new possession, and flowers and plants were removed, since there was no sunlight to stimulate their growth, the family gradually moved their activities to the father's study, where things did not rule.

On the other hand, the aesthetic advantage of living with beautiful things, even though they must be carefully handled, must be balanced against the consideration of the time and energy required, and the fact that the individuals concerned must practice some restraint.

Integrated Philosophy A philosophy toward resources which appears suitable for today's world is one which highlights the interrelatedness of resources. Such a philosophy of management of resources maintains that materials should be subordinate to people in importance. Waste is to be avoided, since material goods like other resources are scarce, but on the other hand, conservation of things should be balanced against the demands such conservation makes upon other resources, particularly the human resources. Lastly, individual decisions concerning all resources may well be viewed in terms of their more lasting effects upon society as a whole.

Managerial Process Applicable to All Resources, Material Goods an Example

Resources are used to achieve goals by applying to them the managerial process. In this book, separate chapters have been devoted to the applica-

⁸ Christopher Crowfield (Harriet Beecher Stowe) *House and Home Papers* (Boston: Fields, Osgood, 1869), pp. 1-22.

tion of the managerial process to resources such as time energy and money Since major decisions about material goods are usually described as having to do with their selection use and care it is somewhat difficult to see the steps in the managerial process here as clearly as in the case of time or money where one is accustomed to making specific plans for the resource even though one may not have been conscious of all three steps in the managerial process However when decisions concerning material goods are analyzed according to the steps of the managerial process it is apparent that decisions concerning selection are made in both the planning and the control stages Use and care while involving some planning are primarily decided in the control step Evaluation of the use of materials is as usual the backward look to see how well the family's goals were achieved The evaluation can in this case be somewhat specific in that the person carrying on the evaluation will decide whether success or failure was due to selection use or care of the material goods involved

PLANNING

Planning for material goods involves decisions as to which goods will be acquired in what numbers the characteristics desired in each one and the methods of acquiring them Choices of goods to be obtained are a tangible expression of one's standard of living and involve fundamental values Planning of this kind is not always recognized since it is not usually isolated in relation to material goods Decisions concerning them are usually made when the family budget is developed The first step in budgeting⁶ is to list the material goods and services needed and desired by the family in order of their importance While such a list involves many nonmaterial items as well as material goods and while many articles may be obtained without the use of money the inclusion or exclusion of specific items in the family's plans are weighed at this time

After deciding what goods are desired and needed the family or individual must then decide the characteristics which are essential in each article For example is quality more important to them than quantity? What is the most important characteristic in a paring knife? Does the homemaker prefer a single knife of excellent steel which will maintain a good cutting edge or would she prefer several cheaper knives so that she can have one in each of the work centers in her kitchen?

In some cases the characteristics desired in a specific good may be quite general and are integrated into a standard of minimum quality which the individual considers essential On the other hand characteristics desired may be quite specific as when a breakfast table which is being

⁶ See p. 369

purchased to fit into a very small area must be large enough to seat four people comfortably

Some characteristics which are desirable in themselves will be eliminated because of the care they demand a matter largely determined when the article is chosen. Conservation versus time and energy demands was discussed under the development of a philosophy toward material goods. When white or cream colored painted woodwork is selected for a living room instead of waxed natural wood finishes the family has chosen a finish which will require more care to insure equal attractiveness. A handsome pale beige coat may be rejected because of the expense of frequent cleanings.

Although planning for material goods is frequently done in conjunction with budgeting money is not necessarily the most important factor in determining the choice of such articles. If the family's goal is to own a particular item it may be obtained in more than one way. While it is true that most articles in the modern home are acquired by purchasing them many illustrations could be given where the time energy and abilities of family members have been used to provide new materials or to utilize those already on hand.

In the planning step more fundamental than how to select an item in the market is the question as to whether the item should be purchased at all. Analysis of this question might involve first answering the following questions:

Do I really need or want this article?

Would something that I own serve the purpose as well?

If I really need or want it should I make it rather than purchase it?

Could I choose a different article that would serve the original purpose at less money cost?

Could I buy another article that would serve this and other purposes in addition?

How frequently will it be used?

CONTROLLING

Having decided in the planning stage that a particular item is to be purchased the homemaker finds many new questions occur when the selection is actually made in the market.

How much care does it require?

How durable is it?

Does it incorporate good design?

Is it of good quality for its kind?

Is its quality suitable to the use to which it will be put?

How much storage space does it require?

These questions multiplied by the tremendous variety of items to be selected lead to the more fundamental question

Am I building up a fund of technical information to enable me to select all the items I need and want? What kind of general information can help me regardless of the particular good I am buying?

This last question obviously cannot be answered completely within the space limits of this book. Suffice it to say that the needed information and legal protection of the buyer are to some extent available. More will be done in this area as individuals and families recognize this information as a resource and demand it.

During the early 1920's the American Home Economics Association pioneered in what has since become known as the consumer movement. Ruth O'Brien states that the purpose of this movement is to

improve the position of families as purchasers of food, clothing, and household items. This involves not only the education of consumers as family purchasing agents, but also the furtherance of local and national grading, labeling, and similar programs which will enable consumers to find and recognize the specific articles of merchandise on the retail market that meet their needs and incomes.

Control Through Labels and Informative Literature Because of the large number of items which are packaged and the numerous characteristics which are not recognizable even when the article can be examined, labels are potentially a most important source of information to the consumer. They can, however, serve only as a partial substitute for information since the purchaser needs to understand the meaning of terms used on labels. In order for the consumer to compare two articles of the same type, standardized terms should be used, and some means of determining the quality of the article, such as a quality grade, should be on the label. Lacking objective means of determining quality, it is not surprising that consumers rely heavily on the limited assistance provided by brand names.

It is evident that the consumer needs more information. Attempts to obtain such information through legislation have been spotty. In general, these laws and regulations demand a truthful statement of the ingredients or origin of a food or a fabric, but they do little or nothing to demand information concerning the quality of the product.

The consumer can assist in obtaining the information he needs in two ways. He can study labels and make use of all objective information which is given, and he can ask for further information. Only as producers and

¹ Ruth O'Brien, "The Consumer Movement in the United States," *Journal of Home Economics*, Vol. 41, No. 9 (November 1949), p. 506.

retailers are convinced that consumers really want such facts will they provide them

With the growth of the consumer movement a tremendous amount of literature dealing with products has emerged. Three major sources are independent testing services, educational groups, and trade associations. The first group, exemplified by Consumers Union of the U. S. Inc. and Consumer's Research Inc., tests products and publishes specific findings naming brands, models, and characteristics. While such ratings may appear to be the answer to the consumer's problems, and while they are considered unbiased, the limited number of items tested and the specificity of the findings limit their usefulness. In publishing ratings, the testing services usually describe the characteristics tested and the reasons why some models were unacceptable. This general discussion may be of help to the consumer in pointing out some of the characteristics to look for or to avoid in a product.

Textbooks and educational bulletins, although unbiased, stress only general characteristics rather than those of a particular manufacturer; this may make it difficult to locate a desired product. A major disadvantage of educational sources is the time lag between the introduction of a new product and the distribution of information concerning it.

Trade associations are groups of manufacturers dealing with a particular type of product, such as gas appliances or electric appliances. A list of such trade groups with their addresses is available in the *Encyclopedia of National Associations* found in many libraries. Although less prejudiced than the material distributed by an individual concern, even that of a trade association is biased in favor of its own product. They do, however, inform the public of new developments which are of importance to consumers.

The consumer must learn to be discriminating in his acceptance of literature. He can judge the helpfulness of the material on the basis of its up-to-dateness, the objectivity of the information supplied, the authority of its source, and by deciding for himself what bias, if any, may be expected from this source.

Control Through Development of Judgment in Use and Care of Goods
The second method of controlling the carrying out of a plan for material goods is the development of judgment in the use and care of such articles. Good management of all materials is in part a matter of judgment and technical knowledge rather than one of expenditure of time and energy. While at the time it is made a wise choice may take a little more time than an unwise one, a sound decision may eliminate the need for the expenditure of much time and energy in the future. It is akin to the proverb, "A stitch in time saves nine." For example, judgment is involved

in the avoidance of mildew by thorough drying of textiles before putting them into the soiled clothes hamper. The wise use of equipment is less frequently a balance between conserving the material thing and the expenditure of time and energy. It usually depends upon a knowledge of the principles involved. For example, understanding that the temperature of water after it reaches the boiling point does not increase regardless of the amount of heat applied may save fuel.

EVALUATING

Evaluating the management of materials in the household is related to standards. There are customary ways of utilizing materials within any family and to some extent within a given community. Because materials are tangible, standards of use are quite easily observed.

Length of Life. The nearest to an objective evaluation of the use of specific materials is through inventories. They are admittedly laborious devices, but if a family or individual keeps them, it is possible to know how well their possessions last. Length of life is, of course, only one phase of effective use of materials, but it lends itself to objective measurement. Estimates⁸ are available of the service life expectancy of certain items of household equipment and furnishings under one owner, against which an individual may check his own experience and replacement practice with durable goods. These estimates are based on statistical data and are listed at the top of the following page.

When the life of an article is known, its short or long duration can be explained in terms of selection, use, care, or any combination of these factors. Some articles are poor to start with, yet selecting one may be the homemaker's only choice. She may have too little available money to buy a better article, or no better one may be on the market to which she has access. A case in point would be choosing a very inexpensive paring knife, which may not last long. After the article has been selected, improper use will shorten its life (e.g., using it to open a can). Lastly, an article can be well selected and used, but poorly cared for. The handle of a paring knife may become loosened if it is allowed to soak for long periods in water, or the blade may be nicked by careless storage among other knives.

Other checks on the use of materials, which are unrelated to length of

⁸ J. L. Pennock, *Planning for the Replacement of Durable Goods*. Report at 36th Annual Agricultural Outlook Conference, November 1958, U.S. Dept. of Agr. Research Service, Inst. of Home Economics, Washington, D.C., p. 9. J. L. Pennock and C. M. Jaeger, "More on Replacement Rates for Household Appliances," *Family Economics Review* (June 1961), p. 13.

the distribution of resources determines the degree to which a family is actually striving toward a particular goal. It is easy to illustrate the use of resources in achieving certain goals such as maintaining a comfortable home, having a well fed family or being suitably clothed for a variety of situations. Time, money, energy and knowledge are necessary to fulfill these goals. Resources are also essential in reaching less tangible goals such as wanting to be popular. Contacts with people must be established. These take time, whether through writing letters, sharing their activities or just in visiting with them. Money may also be involved. A family builds a home in an expensive neighborhood so that the children will have suitable associates; a college student buys an evening dress in order to attend a party where she would be uncomfortable if attired otherwise. Many a college girl finds a surprising amount of her allowance spent on cokes which she bought while chatting with friends in their favorite hang-out. Certain abilities such as skill in playing the piano are an aid in reaching the goal of popularity.

Still less tangible goals such as the development of intellectual ability require props. It is true that thinking can go on without material aid, but reading books and attending school, both of which cost money, certainly open avenues for creative thinking. Invention, another kind of intellectual activity, demands working materials. In addition, all types of thinking require time; in fact, most people blame their failure to do creative thinking on lack of time. To develop an appreciation for beauty in nature is a goal which, at first glance, seems to cost little in the way of resources, yet it too requires time, energy and possibly money spent for appropriate clothes, transportation and so forth.

An individual may verbally claim that the attainment of a particular goal is important to him, but only by the allocation of necessary economic resources to that goal can he prove his sincerity.

GUIDES TO INCREASING SATISFACTIONS FROM RESOURCES

An overall objective in the use of resources is to get the greatest satisfaction from them. A help in so doing is Elizabeth Hoyt's well known fourfold guide to maximize satisfactions.¹⁰

- 1) Increasing supply of resources
- 2) Knowing alternate uses
- 3) Increasing utility and expanding appreciations
- 4) Balancing choices

¹⁰ Elizabeth F. Hoyt, *Consumption in Our Society* (New York: McGraw Hill, 1958), pp. 344-345.

Increasing Supply of Resources

In order for a family to increase its available resources it must be aware of its total assets. It is unfortunate if goals which might have been easily achieved by using all available resources are laboriously achieved through the use of only a few. An example of the latter might be a woman who because of limited energy skimps on all other expenditures to provide elaborate labor saving equipment in meal preparation thus depriving other family members of some desired goods. The entire family could have been challenged by the mother's need for help and drawing upon many resources could actually have achieved more satisfying results. The father might have improvised some labor saving devices, family members might have offered to shoulder some of the responsibility for meal preparation and the mother might have seen opportunities for saving energy by simplifying menus and becoming motion minded in preparing them.

This example is more that of increasing family supply than total supply of its members. It is quite easy to visualize increasing the total supply of some of the resources classified on page 124—money or knowledge for example. A change in attitude may also represent an increase in resources available for reaching a desired goal. It is less easy to increase the supply of energy to pursue other resources.

Knowing Alternate Uses

Any discussion of alternate use of resources raises the question of how the person becomes aware of alternate choices. In Chapter 3 dealing with the steps in decision making it was recognized that the amount of resources involved in seeking possible alternatives must be considered. In some cases becoming acquainted with alternate use of resources may call for a long drawn out search¹¹ as when parents and prospective college students spend many days and weeks visiting campuses talking with counselors concerning what to look for and where to apply. To a young person who has grown up in a university community or with brothers and sisters who have gone to college before him many of these alternatives are known to him without his ever having given them conscious consideration. On the other hand to assume that only the same alternatives are available to him as were to his relatives may be an example of not maximizing his satisfactions through knowing alternate uses of resources. The present guide assumes a knowledge or consideration of a

¹¹ Joseph Gartner, Lee Kolmer, and Ethel B. Jones, *Consumer Marketing Bulletin I: Consumer Decision Making* (Ames, Iowa: Iowa State University and Cooperative Extension Service), November, 1960, p. 7.

sufficient number of alternatives so that the most satisfying use can be selected

MEANING OF ALTERNATE USES

This guide can be approached from two points of view 1) alternate uses of a given resource and 2) the use of alternate resources to reach a given goal To illustrate 1) given a fairly generous amount of money one can choose whether after necessities have been cared for it should be used for travel clothes charity or for other interests A specific chest of drawers may be used for storing clothing bed linens or table linens a fourth alternative would be to use it for a combination of clothing and bed linens Once a particular alternative is followed that resource is no longer available for other choices Time spent reading is used up and cannot be spent playing golf Money spent in travel cannot be given to charity Thus choices are necessary To illustrate 2) the possibility of alternative uses of resources often allows the substitution of one resource for another which is scarce A common example is that if a homemaker has more time than money at her disposal she does her own housework On the other hand if she has more money than time as when she works outside the home she may hire someone to do certain tasks or use community facilities Another possibility is the homemaker who finds her time increasingly limited because of many demands upon it and who through knowledge skill use of labor saving equipment and an analytical approach to her work is able to reduce the amount of time required for house care

Information is limited on the amount of time saved in relation to the money cost when widely accepted pieces of household equipment are used Based on the average time saved and money spent during the estimated lifetime of the pieces of equipment Table 5.1 shows interrelationship of time costs and money costs

The life span of 20 years for the washer and 30 years for the vacuum cleaner and the dryer was based on estimates of service men as to the probable life of each appliance The operating costs include estimated cost of repairs replacement and miscellaneous service Although the dryer and vacuum cleaner have no parts which could not be replaced if worn it is expected that after 30 years of use they would be discarded for newer models The life span of the washer was based on the service men's experience with nonautomatic washers

In 1953 the United States Department of Agriculture conducted a study of the relative costs in time and money for actual meals when the same two days menus were served from foods which were respectively home prepared ; partially prepared or purchased ready-to-serve The

meals from partly prepared foods were judged nearly as acceptable as the home prepared the ready-to-serve were less acceptable. The costs per day were \$4.50 and 5.5 hours for the home prepared (bakery bread was the only prepared food) \$5.80 and 3.1 hours for the partially prepared and \$6.70 and 1.6 hours for the meals prepared from ready-to-serve foods.¹

TABLE 5-1 Interrelationship of Time and Money Costs*

Operation	Time Saved (hours)	Added Cost of Time Saving Method**
Cleaning by vacuum cleaner instead of by hand (30 years)	344	\$248
Washing by automatic washer instead of wringer type machine (20 years)	1337	\$350
Drying by dryer instead of on line (30 years)	2937	\$662

Ann L. Himmels, City of Atlanta, Georgia, before the Family Economics Home Management Division of the AHEA, Atlantic City, N.J., June 27, 1952.
Includes operating costs as well as original cost of equipment.

Another example of substituting one resource for another is found in a family which recognizes the validity of the community's demands upon their resources. They may see possibilities for using their energy and abilities to satisfy family and individual needs in order to free funds to use for community needs—for example by painting the kitchen themselves in order to make a donation to the Community Chest. Or if a large proportion of their money is necessary to meet family needs a contribution may still be made to the community through use of their energy or abilities. In a neighborhood nursery school fathers may make equipment for the children.

Recognizing all resources as was stressed earlier makes it possible to free one resource for more satisfying uses by substituting others. For example family A has sufficient money to buy its clothing ready-made. However Mrs. A has both time and the ability to make many of her clothes. Furthermore she enjoys the creative aspects of sewing. Thus she frees money for a family trip which gives satisfaction to all family members.

¹ Mildred M. Boggs and Clyde L. Rasmussen, *Modern Food Processing in Food the Yearbook of Agriculture 1959* (U.S. Government Printing Office 1959) p. 430.

Increasing Utility and Expanding Appreciations

Not only may a general resource such as money have alternate uses but some specific goods embody many possible uses. The selection of such goods increases utility. A woman who chooses a basic costume can dress up or down for use on many different kinds of occasions. A beautiful bowl of oven china can be used for a casserole dish, for salad, for fruit, or for flowers. A card table can provide a surface for study, a table for light meals, a serving table, and so forth, as well as its designated use for cards.

Satisfaction also increases if one finds new uses or combinations of uses for things already owned. For example, an adjustable ironing board and a cutting board provide a cutting space for sewing which is much more comfortable than the same cutting board placed on a table of a less convenient height. Finding that a blouse purchased to wear with shorts also looks well with a skirt already owned increases the utility of the blouse.

Expanding appreciations is a more subtle process than increasing utility. It results in growth of the individual using the resource. The use of time to get a book from the public library and then read it may open doors to new and growing interests, for example, a book on a country in the news. The same amount of time given to watching a favorite serial program on television will probably not open the doors to more and more interests. To expand appreciations a combination of resources is needed—one of the intangible resources such as knowledge or attitude along with one or more of the more recognized ones like money or time.

Appreciations may expand in area or increase in depth. To follow the illustration above of reading a book about a country in the news, one may become interested in other countries, that is, foreign countries in general—an enlargement of area of appreciations. One may, however, choose to deepen appreciations from the same starting point, thus develop some understanding of the people of one particular country by reading about them in a variety of writings (travel books, novels, plays) and possibly by meeting a few people from that country.

Balancing of Choices Among Resources

Most thinking people agree that a satisfying life must represent a synthesis of varying elements. One commonly speaks of a well-balanced life, although the elements involved are not present in equal or in known amounts. The important factor in a satisfying life is probably not an equal or even a specific distribution of resources among interests, but rather an insistence that all be represented. Thus a butter cake made from flour, sugar, salt, baking powder, fat, eggs, and liquid. Or

may make a richer cake by increasing the amount of fat or a less rich one by decreasing the fat but other ingredients must be varied to maintain the necessary balance. If one omits fat completely then no butter cake can be made. Therefore the balance among the ingredients may vary according to the product desired or the resources available but a product quite different and often unsatisfactory will result if all necessary ingredients are not represented.

Macfie stresses the importance of balance among interests. He intimates that various interests serve as checks and balances upon each other and further that balance in itself provides satisfaction.¹⁴

A proportioned life does seem to release and enrich energies. The one interest in its proper place stimulates and refreshes others. Exercise refreshes thought too much of either deadens both. Also the endeavor to cultivate efficiency through proper proportions can play a part in the emergence of specific virtues such as self-control, tolerance, broadmindedness. It certainly can help to establish these though if it takes first place it can equally reinforce narrowness and at its best it is directed to the quantitative proportions of these values only. Even so a sense of proportion, an appreciation of the satisfaction from a broadly based balance of interests seems to have some claim to specific final value itself.

If as has long been assumed balance is necessary for a satisfying life devices or tests for checking balance are needed. What are the elements which should be represented if a satisfying life is to be achieved?

NEEDS OF COMMUNITY INCLUDED

A very simple list suggests three different needs to be considered. Are the needs of the individual, the family, and the community included? Obviously greater emphasis may be placed upon the first two mentioned but the third and most frequently neglected should be taken into account. Representation of all elements does not imply a single pattern of management. No one would say to a family, "You must devote one third of your time, money, energy, and abilities to the development of individual family members, one third to your family as a whole, and one third to your community." On the other hand it is conceivable that one might say, "Can you afford to ignore the community in your plans for managing your resources?" The social implications of choice must not be overlooked. Since a community is merely the composite of many individuals, each family must consider its responsibilities to the community and must be willing to share its resources for the development of the whole. Though there are many families who do not contribute to the support of any church, there are few who would wish to live in a community that has no churches. Although during crises such as war, fam-

¹⁴ A. L. Macfie, "What Kind of Experience Is Economizing?" *Ethics* Vol. 60 (October 1949) p. 28.

ilies are much more willing to give energy time and money for community projects the need always exists

BASIC CULTURAL INTERESTS INCLUDED

A more elaborate classification of the elements among which resources must be distributed was set up by Elizabeth Hoyt¹⁵ in terms of six basic cultural interests which determine one's consumption. They include the sensory which covers the physical demands of the individual and the social or the desire for associating with people. These two are important in all cultures. The remaining four found in all cultures but in varying degrees of importance are the intellectual which deals with the creation of ideas, the technological which involves carrying out these ideas and which deals with things, the aesthetic which is concerned with the importance of beauty in itself, and lastly the empathetic which is concerned with the relationship of the individual to the universe. Each of these particular interests will be represented in an individual's life by the way he distributes his economic resources. The inherent importance of physical and social interests indicates that there is little danger of economic resources not being used for them, but the less important interests also need to be satisfied.

In using the basic cultural interests as a test for a balanced life, the same precautions should be taken as when checking to see that individual and group interests are represented. There is no implication that resources should be equally divided among the interests. A thoughtful person will, however, recognize what each interest has to offer to a well-balanced life and will, no doubt, consider any life incomplete in which one of the interests is absent.

As a final basis for evaluating balance in their management of resources, present-day families may well be guided by Ellen H. Richards' Creed, which, although it was widely distributed at the St. Louis Exposition in 1904, has a very modern sound today.¹⁶

HOME ECONOMICS STANDS FOR

The ideal home life for today, unhampered by the traditions of the past

The utilization of all the resources of modern science to improve the home life

The freedom of the home from the dominance of things and their due subordination to ideals

The simplicity in material surroundings which will most free the spirit for the more important and permanent interests of the home and of society

¹⁵ By permission from *Consumption in Our Society* by Elizabeth Hoyt. Copyright 1938 McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc. pp. 16-30.

¹⁶ Keturah Baldwin, *The AHEA Saga* (Washington, D. C.: AHEA, 1949), p. 17, quoting from the *Lake Placid Conference Report of 1903*.

SUMMARY

Resources may be classified as human and nonhuman. The nonhuman resources include money, material goods, and many community facilities. They are more tangible and their importance is more frequently recognized than that of human resources, which include time, energy, interests, abilities, and skills of family members, knowledge, and attitudes. Families and individuals need to be aware of their total resources, for frequently some are overlooked or not used as fully as possible.

Many of the underlying considerations in the use of all resources are the same. All are useful and limited; otherwise management would not be necessary. Both the inevitability and the extent of these limitations must be recognized.

The use of resources is interrelated, since decisions about one resource affect others and, in some cases, one plentiful resource may be substituted for a lacking one. Despite these interrelationships, the lack of a single resource may prove crucial to the attainment of a desired goal.

The managerial process is applicable in the utilization of all resources. Its application to the management of material goods was illustrated in this chapter.

Perhaps the most significant similarity among resources is that their use determines the kind of life an individual or family has, for no goal can be achieved without the employment of resources.

Guides to increasing satisfactions in the use of resources include the understanding of their interrelatedness, along with the possibilities of alternate use, the principles of increasing utility and expanding appreciations, and the achievement of balance among interests. Although it was first stated near the turn of the century, Ellen H. Richards' Creed for home economics is presented as a functioning standard for evaluating use of resources today.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

1. Give examples of management in a home that emphasizes one resource more than another—for example, management in a family that is money conscious.
2. Make an outline showing the various types of material goods in general use in the home. Such an outline can be used as a basis for a filing system for magazine articles, pamphlets, and other information concerning these articles.
3. A homemaker gets everything done in a home when five or more students in a home management house find themselves very busy sharing similar work. How may she use her resources differently? What resources may she have that they lack?

- 4 Recall a decision made during the past week in which the use of one resource was balanced against another—for example deciding whether to purchase an article to make it at your leisure or to push yourself at the task when time was limited and thus use additional nervous energy. What factors entered into your decision?
- 5 Compare specific money and time costs in the use of partially prepared products and the same article made at home—for example prepared food mixes.
- 6 Which of the philosophies about resources described in this chapter most nearly parallels your own philosophy? Give personal examples to illustrate.
- 7 During the past week what examples have you observed in which
 - a The people involved were considered more important than was conservation of materials?
 - b Undue emphasis was placed on things?
- 8 Have a family or some other group look critically at their living room—its furnishings and accessories. List any article the upkeep of which requires considerable care or expense or both (e.g. delicate curtains that require frequent dry cleaning). Decide in regard to each item whether it contributes too little satisfaction to warrant keeping it, providing it can be changed. If it can be eliminated, what would you substitute?
- 9 Compare practices in the conservation of furnishings in a
 - a home b sorority house c rented room d dormitory
- 10 Effect of care of materials as evidence of control step in managerial process
 - a Select an article of furniture, equipment, or clothing which you have owned for five years. Describe its condition and evaluate your care of it. Has this article lasted as long as you expected? Longer? Why?
 - b Describe an article which did not last as long as you expected it to. Why did it not last?
- 11 Managerial process applied to a material good. Recall some major article which you or your family has acquired after considerable planning (such as a new car).
 - a Has your method of caring for this article changed any since you owned it? If so, why were the changes made?
 - b Was any special information needed in choosing the desired article? If so, what? How was the information obtained? How objective was it?
 - c How satisfied has the family been with the results of its selection, use, and care of this article?
- 12 Some people say they never throw anything away. Consider the advantages and disadvantages of this practice in regard to the management of resources.
- 13 Hold a clinic on the wider use of clothing accessories. Each person present is to bring an accessory which she feels has possibilities for wide use. Hold a competition to see which accessory has the most uses.

- 14 Show how the utility of a good can be increased by selecting one piece of table service and using it in as many different ways as possible (e.g. individual casseroles can be used for soups individual salads baked puddings meat pies etc.)
- 15 Describe an appreciation which you have developed in the last two or three years. What motivated its development? Give evidence of how it has increased in breadth or depth.
- 16 List the expenditures of money you have made in the last week. (A shorter period may be chosen if many expenditures were made.) Classify each as to the basic cultural interest which was most important in each choice.
- 17 Consider a large purchase you have made recently. See how many of Hoyt's basic cultural interests were involved in your selection of this one item.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Awareness—The Key to Whether You Are Dead or Alive *House Beautiful* Vol 101 No 1 (January 1959) pp 41-43

CROWFIELD Christopher (Harriet Beecher Stowe) *House and Home Papers* (Boston Fields Osgood 1869)

CUSHMAN Ella M. *Management in Homes* (New York Macmillan 1945)

DEACON Ruth and BRATTON Esther Crew. Home Management Focus and Function *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 54 No 9 (November 1962) pp 760-766

FITZSIMMONS Cleo. *The Management of Family Resources* (San Francisco Freeman 1950) Part III Resources Chapter XV The Principle of Economy Chapter XVI The Principle of Scarcity

GARTNER Joseph KOLMER Lee and JONES Ethel B. *Consumer Marketing Bulletin I Consumer Decision Making* (Ames Iowa Iowa State University and Cooperative Extension Service) November 1960

HOYT Elizabeth. *Consumption in Our Society* (New York McGraw Hill 1938) Chapter 2 Basic Cultural Interests Chapter 28 "Maximizing Satisfaction: The Problem Analyzed"

JAEGER C M and PENNOCK J S. Household Service Life of Appliances *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 49 No 10 (December 1957) pp 787-788

O'BRIEN Ruth. The Consumer Movement in the United States *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 41 (November 1949)

PENNOCK Jean S. *Planning for the Replacement of Durable Goods* (Mimeo) U S Department of Agriculture

— and JAEGER C M. More on Replacement Rates for Household Appliances *Family Economics Review* (June 1961) pp 14-16

WARREN Jean. Time Resource or Utility? *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 49 No 1 (January 1957) pp 20-22

WHITE Rose V. Standards for the Consumer *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 53 No 7 (September 1961) pp 532-537

6

The Family Life Cycle

CONCEPT OF THE LIFE CYCLE

A valuable aid in understanding and meeting the problems of family life including managerial problems is the concept of the family life cycle. Different as individual families are from each other they go through similar stages in their life history. A family starts with two relatively young persons grows normally into a larger group of assorted ages eventually returns to a group of two older persons.

Importance of Recognizing the Cycle

The importance of recognizing the life cycle of the family lies in the opportunity it affords families to look ahead and to foresee the family needs and wants which may be expected to occur during each stage. It is also valuable for prediction of the flow of resources a family may logically expect at the various stages.

A family's financial situation in any given stage of the family life cycle depends in large part on what it has accomplished or failed to accomplish in earlier stages. Many of a family's most difficult financial problems are due to the fact that for one reason or another—sometimes lack of knowledge, sometimes circumstances beyond its control—it has been unable in an earlier stage of the family cycle to make provision for some one or more of the family's wants.¹

These needs and wants will make demands upon time, energy, abilities, and durable goods, as well as upon money. While primarily intended to illustrate the effect of the life cycle upon the housing needs of the family, Figure 6-1 is applicable to the general pattern of the cycle, showing the varying intensity of demands upon family resources.²

¹ Howard F. Bigelow, "What Are Usual Family Patterns?" *Journal of Home Economics*, Vol. 42, No. 1 (January 1950), p. 27.

² Frederick Gutheim, *Houses for Family Living* (New York: Woman's Foundation, 1948), pp. 12-13.

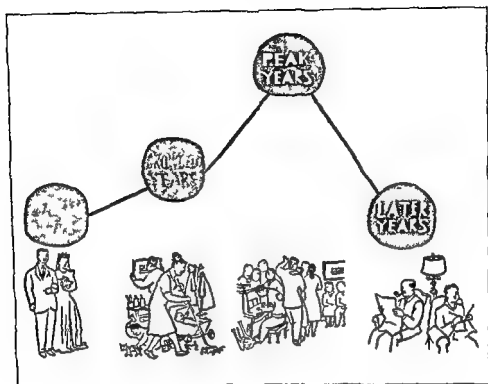


FIGURE 6-1 Demand upon Resources During the Family Life Cycle

From *Frank Furth, The Family Life Cycle* (New York: Women's Fund, 1948) pp. 12-13

Development of the Concept

Until the turn of the century economists in their writings apparently did not link adequacy and use of income with the family life cycle. In 1902 Rowntree, an Englishman, published a study of poverty in York, England, describing alternating periods of want and comparative plenty in the life of a laborer. He devised a diagram to show that these periods fluctuated with the dependence and independence of children in the family. To illustrate a particular couple whose income was just above the amount needed for adequacy progressed nicely until the birth of children when the added burden meant that their once adequate income was no longer sufficient for their needs. Their burdens continued to be increasingly heavy until the children were old enough to contribute to family support. The income again became adequate when the children left home or became independent. At the end of the life cycle, reduced

earning power of the breadwinner once more meant that the income was not adequate for family needs. Figure 6-2 shows Rowntree's graphic illustration of the life cycle. Sydenstricker and King found a similar curve for South Carolina mill workers in 1917.

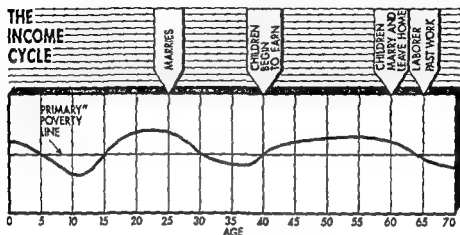


FIGURE 6-2 The Income Cycle

Adapted from B. S. Bohm Rowntree, *Life Cycle*, A Study of the Life Cycle of the Family, London (1922), as reported in Edgar Sydenstricker and William D. King, *The Income Cycle of the Life of the Wage Earner*, P. N. Hethcote, R. P. Vol. 39, N. 34 (Aug. 22, 1924), p. 2133.

The concept of the family life cycle was refined in the 30's by Bigelow³ who then listed seven different stages in relation to the use of money. For a time the life cycle was neglected in educational circles although some individuals recognized its value as a tool for analysis and teaching of the economic problems of families. As late as March 1948 when the Bureau of Labor Statistics published the *Workers' Budgets in the United States*, the importance of the life cycle was only suggested. In a discussion of the effect of family size upon costs of maintaining a given level of consumption, this report states:⁴

Since the scale does not differentiate families by the age of the family head, it should be noted that the relative position of two-person families is an averaging of the young and the old. It is quite possible that there are significant differences between young families and "old" families in the amount of income required to maintain the same level of living.

³ Howard F. Bigelow, "Toward a Theory of Family Finance," *Journal of Home Economics*, Vol. III (1931), pp. 305-330.

⁴ *Workers' Budgets in the United States*, U.S. Dept. of Labor, Bur. of Lab. Stat. Bull. 927, 1948, p. 51.

Ewan Clague then Commissioner of the Bureau of Labor Statistics however recognized the life cycle at that time. He said ⁵

It has been observed that there is a tendency for earnings of the individual working man in the American economy as he progresses through his working life to increase and decrease approximately when his family responsibilities increase and decrease. The young man entering the labor force earns a relatively low beginner's wage at a time when he usually is contributing to the maintenance of an older family or has only himself to support. By the time he marries and assumes responsibility for his own family the chances are that he has gained in experience and earning power and may continue to gain through the period of dependency of his children. If his earnings begin to decline as he passes middle age so typically do his responsibilities. This generalization is substantiated by studies of family incomes since 1935.

Analysis of Cycle into Stages

The three major stages of the life cycle are usually called I—The Beginning Family, II—The Expanding Family, and III—The Contracting Family. Bigelow refined the three major stages of the life cycle still further showing nine substages if one considers a courtship stage or eight if courtship is omitted. The chronological stages and substages of the cycle for a family are ⁶

Stage	Substage
I Beginning Family	1) period of establishment
II Expanding Family	2) child bearing and preschool
	3) elementary school
	4) high school
	5) college
III Contracting Family	6) period of vocational adjustment of children
	7) period of financial recovery
	8) retirement

Normally all families with children go through each of these sub-stages with the exception of 5. Not all families send their children to college. If this period is omitted a family goes directly from the high school stage to the period of vocational adjustment. Since most families have more than one child it is possible for them to have to face the problems of two or more stages at once or to have the demands of a particular stage intensified as when several children are in college at one time.

Available statistical evidence shows that both the typical length of the

⁵ *Ibid.* p. 14

⁶ Bigelow, *What Are Usual Family Patterns?* op. cit. pp. 27-29

three major stages in the cycle and the length of the entire cycle have varied significantly in the last decades owing to smaller families in creased longevity and earlier marriages The graph shown in Figure 6-3 compares the typical life cycle for the years 1890 and 1960 based upon the age of the wife at different events in the cycle

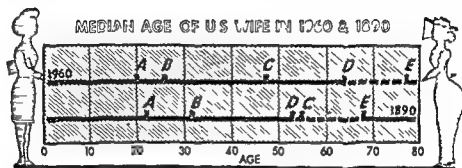


FIGURE 6-3 Median Age of Wife at Various Stages of the Life Cycle in the U S 1890 and 1960

Key and Median Age of Wife

	1890	1960
A First Marriage	22 0	20 2
B Birth of last child	31 9	25 8
C Marriage of last child	55 3	47 1
D Death of husband if first	53 3	63 6
E Death of wife	67 7	77 2

1960 fig. ed 1960 d t t 1 ble f d ath f w t Sou ce F g e for 1890 d B
fo 1960, P ul C Gl k Th Lf Cy l of the Fam ly Marriag a d F m ly L g V l
XVII N 1 F br u ry 1955 Tabl 1 F gu t 1960 P t C Gl u D d M Bec d
J hn C B e fo d Soc al Chang d F m ly St tu T d a d P o s e t p a p e
t d at the u l m t a g of th Ame A s o c a t n fo th Ad m t of S ce
Ch go D m ber 29 1959 (M e o g r a p h d)

A represents the time of marriage B the birth of the last child and the marriage of the last child C marks the beginning of Stage III Women have a longer life expectancy than men so in these typical patterns D represents the death of the husband if he dies first and the cycle closes with the death of the wife E

Assuming that the children leave home at approximately the same age as their parents married the 1960 cycle shows that the last child would leave home on an average when his mother was 47 years old compared with 55 for the 1890 cycle A greater change appears in comparing the life expectancy of the mother at the time of marriage of the last child In 1960 her life expectancy is still about 30 years and that of her husband about 20 years On the other hand in 1890 the average mother was 55

years old at the leaving of her last child the father had been dead for two years and her life expectancy was only about 13 years

Thus the major difference in the length of the stages lies in the latter part of Stage III which was almost twice as long in 1960 as in 1890. This points up the need for provision in the earlier stages of income for this lengthened period of retirement.

MANAGEMENT DURING CYCLE

Before discussing the chief characteristics and problems of each of the three major stages of the life cycle we shall look at some generalizations about the management of and change in resources during its course.

General Managerial Practices

Concerning managerial practices in general one study showed increased managerial scores as the homemaker grew older but a decrease after age 50⁷

<i>Age of homemaker (years)</i>	<i>Average score</i>
20-29	136.0
30-39	153.2
40-49	161.1
50-59	137.8
60 and over	121.8

It may be that the measuring instrument used was less adapted to the older years or that with older women routine management practices had become so fixed that they were used whether truly effective or not.

A recent poll⁸ of homemakers indicated an awareness of the influence of the life cycle on the management of specific resources. About one homemaker out of four reported changes in the life cycle as underlying her chief managerial problem that of time. One out of 10 who gave money management as her biggest problem listed the cycle as the cause. Dr. Hunter stated: "Change in the family life cycle I am sure was anticipated but no realistic planning had been done by many families in relation to this matter."⁹

⁷ H. H. Gross, *Measuring Home Management*, Mich. Agr. Exp. Sta. Circ. Bull. 211, 1948, p. 17.

⁸ Starley M. Hunter, *Summary of Home Tests by Home Management Specialists*. Discussion presented at National Home Management Workshop at Purdue University, April, 1960.

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 1.

Money

Income distribution according to age of breadwinner gives an indication of how family income is apt to increase and then decrease throughout the family life cycle

As shown in Table 6.1 and Figure 6.4 median income starts relatively low in the young family (age of head below 25 years) becomes larger in

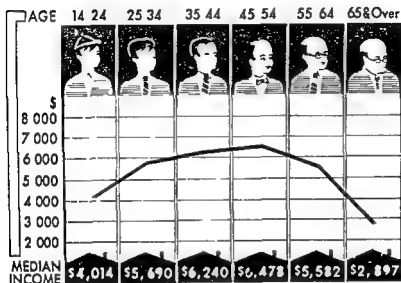


FIGURE 6-4 Income Trends for the Lifetime of a Family According to Age of Family Head

the next decade of family life reaches and maintains its greatest size during the succeeding two decades drops somewhat when the head is aged 35 to 64 and then drops sharply after age 65. After age 65 it is less than half of the peak median income. Families with heads of age 65 and over cluster in the brackets between \$1000 and \$3000 (32.6 per cent). In the peak years of 45-54 44.8 per cent of families had incomes of at least \$7000.

A hypothetical graph showing the flow of income and its use during the life cycle is shown in Figure 6-5.

Nickell and Dorsey have schematically described lifetime income profiles based on broad occupational groups. While not statistically derived

TABLE 6-1 Income Distribution by Age of Family Head for the United States 1960 (per cent)*

Money Income	Age of Head of Family (years)					
	14 to 24	25 to 34	35 to 44	45 to 54	55 to 64	65 and over
Under \$1000	7.4	5.1	5.2	4.5	6.9	9.2
1000-1999	10.9	4.5	4.3	5.4	8.8	22.2
2000-2999	13.4	7.1	5.6	6.3	7.9	20.4
3000-3999	18.0	10.2	8.2	8.1	9.3	12.0
4000-4999	14.7	12.9	9.7	9.4	10.4	8.4
5000-5999	13.8	17.9	13.5	11.6	11.7	6.4
6000-6999	9.2	14.1	13.1	9.8	9.4	4.9
7000-9999	10.8	21.7	24.7	23.6	18.4	8.5
10000 and over	1.7	8.6	17.6	21.2	17.1	7.9
Median income	\$4,014	\$5,690	\$6,420	\$6,478	\$5,582	\$2,897

Adapted from Table 4-C, *U.S. Population Reports: Characteristics of the U.S. Population by Age, Sex, Race, and Nativity*, 1960, U.S. Bureau of the Census, Series F-60-N-37 (January 17, 1962), p. 27.

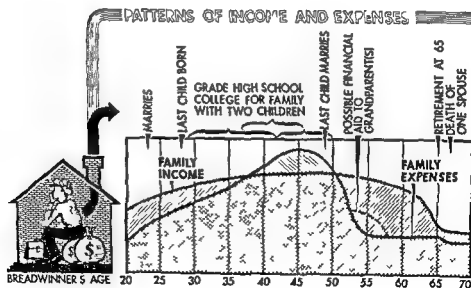


FIGURE 6-5 Patterns of Income and Expenses During the Life Cycle

Major findings from Paul C. Gluck, David M. B. and John C. Bresford, *Social Change and Family Structure: Trends and Prospects*, prepared at the annual meetings of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, Chicago, December 29, 1959.

the profiles help visualize the flow of income for these groups. See Figure 6.6

The effective use of income is influenced by the buying practices of the homemaker. It is stated that newlyweds are not shrewd or hard buying

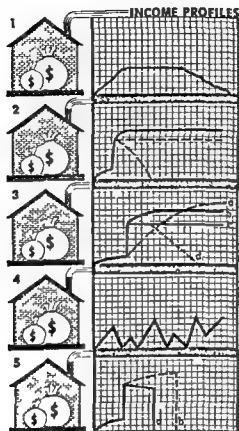


FIGURE 6-6 Profiles of Family Incomes for Lifetime

Profile 1 corresponds to the graph given based on median incomes at various age brackets.

Profile 2 represents inherited income with dotted lines showing failure to increase or complete dissipation of the principal.

Profile 3 illustrates professional or technical occupations with comparatively long training, representing the person who is independent. He has a low income while building his clientele but eventually reaches a higher income than *b* who is a successful salaried professional person or *c* a mediocre success. Line *d* represents a failure who must start over.

Profile 4 illustrates free lancers such as authors, artists, and so forth, who have irregular periods of high and low incomes.

Profile 5 shows hazardous occupations where earning power is high but short in length, although some *b* are able to maintain high income with capital accumulated in earlier periods.

customers¹⁰ and that homemakers are less influenced by advertising in age group 35-50 than in age group 20-35 and still less influenced in age group 50 and up.¹¹ The same decreasing trend occurs in knowledge and use of new products and new brands¹² with advancing age.

Time

The ebb and flow of time demands upon the homemaker throughout the life cycle are shown diagrammatically in Figure 6-7. It must be remembered that the daily supply of time has an absolute limit of 24 hours but that demands upon it may be less equal to or greater than can be met.

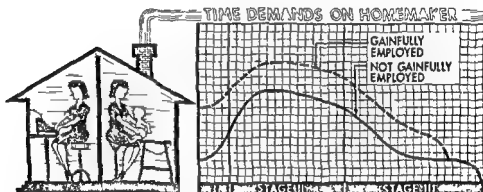


FIGURE 6-7 Time Demands upon the Homemaker During the Life Cycle

In Stage I the Beginning Family, normally a very short stage of the cycle, the use of time differs according to whether the young wife is gainfully employed or not. In either case there is the problem of intermeshing the time patterns of husband and wife and there may be in addition high time costs of household activities due to the inexperience of the new homemaker. The great variable is her gainful employment. If she is not employed outside the home, the demands upon her time are relatively light.

A sharp break occurs between Stages I and II as to time usage. From

¹⁰S. G. Barton, "The Life Cycle and Buying Patterns," in Lincoln H. Clark, Ed., *Consumer Behavior*, Vol. II, *The Life Cycle and Consumer Behavior* (New York: University Press, 1953), p. 55.

¹¹D. G. Miller, "The Life Cycle and the Impact of Advertising," in *Consumer Behavior*, Vol. II, op. cit., p. 63.

¹²*Ibid.*, pp. 64-65.

various studies comes factual evidence of the time demands of young children. In the 1920's Broward¹³ reported an average of 5 hours and 41 minutes for the daily care of an infant under one year of age and its clothing. Warren¹⁴ in the 1930's reported about 2.8 hours per day (1000 hours per year) excluding laundry time. Muse¹⁵ in the 1940's reported about 3.5 hours daily (21½ hours weekly) for care of family members in households with youngest child under 2 years of age. Wiegand¹⁶ in the 1950's reported time used for daily care of family members with youngest child under two is 2.8 hours. In the decades since the earliest of these studies time for the care of the young child has been much reduced through the availability of prepared baby foods and in many communities by diaper services but it is still a large factor in a homemaker's day.

These early musts of time usage give way to other equally important musts as the child or children grow older during the Crowded Years. The time demands grow for guiding and being with the children often at the expense of the husband and wife's time together alone. There is also the need to apportion the parents' time among the children of the family. The intermeshing of uses of time becomes important not only between husband and wife but between the mother and the young child (for example fitting the child's demand to clean like Mommie with the necessary activities of housekeeping). The time patterns of several young mothers in a neighborhood may be fitted together to care for their children in a group and thus free some time for each of them. The contrasted shapes of days in Stages I and II are well shown in Figure 6-8.

As the children grow older and especially as they reach adolescence the intermeshing of time patterns of family members is of paramount importance. Time for use of family facilities by all members—the bath room, the car, the television set—and time for some recreation together must be worked out. The time demands upon the mother at this stage may involve a good deal of transporting of family members to and from work or school. Later in this period there is at least the beginning of increased leisure time alone for the mother.

The end of Stage II blends with the beginning of Stage III—the Contracting Family. The mother now finds herself with increasing amounts of time for herself as the children leave home. She may seek new time

¹³ Laura C. Broward, "A Study of Time Spent in the Care of Babies," *Journal of Home Economics*, Vol. III (1926), pp. 123-127.

¹⁴ Jean Warren, *Use of Time in Its Relation to Home Management*, Cornell Univ. Agr. Exp. Sta. Bull. 134, June 1940, p. 82.

¹⁵ Marianne Muse, *Time Expenditures on Homemaking Activities in 183 Vermont Farm Homes*, Vt. Agr. Exp. Sta. Bull. 530, June 1946, p. 111.

¹⁶ Elizabeth Wiegand, *Use of Time by Full-time and Part-time Homemakers in Relation to Home Management*, Cornell Univ. Agr. Exp. Sta. Memoir 330, July 1954, p. 30.

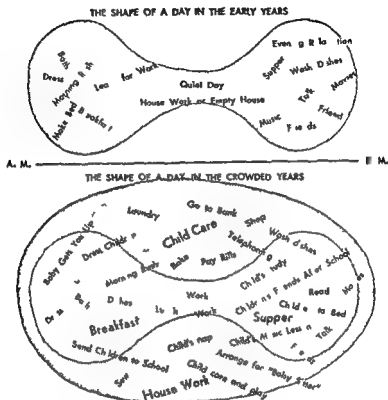


FIGURE 6-8 : Shapes of Days in the Family Life Cycle

From Fredrick Guthrie, *How the Family Lives* (New York: 1948), p. 25.

uses either through participation in community activities or through a return to gainful employment. The latter is increasingly common as is shown by the fact that the median age for women in the labor force in 1960 was over 40 years.¹⁷ The intermeshing of time patterns of husband and wife assumes a new importance especially in the latter part of this stage when he ordinarily retires from employment. In the latter part of Stage III the time demands upon the homemaker may be very light.

Energy

It is interesting to visualize the ebb and flow of energy during the life cycle. Amounts of energy and demands upon it follow different courses

¹⁷ *What's New About Women Workers? a Few Facts*. U.S. Dept. of Labor Leaflet III, Rev. 1960.

These trends are shown in Figure 6-9. The supply of potential energy usually dwindles as life proceeds. The demands upon it during marriage are at first light, then suddenly heavy, with a discrepancy between supply and demand in later life.

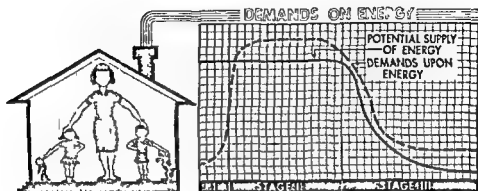


FIGURE 6-9 Hypothetical Flow of Homemaker's Energy and Demands upon It During Family Life Cycle

The special energy problems at various stages in the cycle are: In Stage I, if the wife is not working, she may have at the end of the day much more surplus energy than her husband. The problem is to use hers without overtaxing his. As Stage I merges into Stage II during pregnancy, the wife's energy supply may become inadequate to the demands upon it. In the Parenthood Stage, if the supply of energy is inadequate, fatigue may be common, and there is likely to be frustration fatigue here. The constant interruptions of little children, the responsibility for other lives, the lack of accustomed recreation and of getting away from the four walls of the home, the new demands upon what may be an unchanging income, are only examples of the many possible causes of frustration fatigue.

The great change in Stage III, varying with different individuals, is the diminution in potential energy. The difficulty in accepting this diminution may lead to frustration fatigue even if the demands upon energy have leveled off to some extent.

Residence

In relation to residence, the trends during the cycle are toward less mobility and greater proportion of home ownership. In 1950

<i>Age of head of family (years)</i>	<i>Per cent¹⁸ that had moved during past year</i>	<i>Per cent¹⁹ owning homes</i>
Under 35	32.8	38.6
35-44	15.8	56.0
45-54	9.3	63.8
55-64	9.3	69.8
65 and over	6.2	72.5

THE THREE MAJOR STAGES

Stage I—The Beginning Family

In the first period of the cycle the Period of Establishment there are not only managerial problems to be faced but the moment two people share a living situation whether it be two men two women or a young married couple personal relationships become intertwined with managerial problems and decisions.

The first period of the cycle is when long term goals habits of work division of responsibility and other patterns are determined.

It is important to realize that practices developed in the first stage tend to remain relatively fixed throughout marriage unless some major incentive for change presents itself.²⁰

There are many areas of possible conflict over the use of resources. The attitudes and feelings of the two partners toward money or materials or time may need to be harmonized.

If the marriage partners do not recognize their basic conflicts and endeavor to reduce and resolve them in the beginning stage of their marriage—before the arrival of children obscures and complicates their personal conflicts—the entire family structure is placed in jeopardy.²¹

FINANCIAL PROBLEMS

In management the importance of relationship and attitudes has been demonstrated by a number of studies. Pace²² found that while 80 per cent

¹⁸ P. Glick *American Families* (New York: Wiley, 1957) Table 58, p. 90.

¹⁹ *Ibid.* Table 65, p. 99.

²⁰ Ruth L. Bonde, "What Goals Does the Family Want?" *Journal of Home Economics*, Vol. 42, No. 1 (January 1950), p. 26.

²¹ Frances L. Feldman, *The Family in a Money World* (New York: Family Service Association of America, 1957), p. 35.

²² C. Robert Pace, *They Went to College* (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota, 1941), pp. 82-83.

of the couples in his study of 1951 former college students did not frequently disagree management of income was the major cause of disagreement listed by husbands and the second in the list of causes mentioned by wives. The proportion of wives who considered management of income as a source of disagreement was larger than that of husbands. Pace further found that in spite of their relatively high earnings a large number were dissatisfied with their incomes and that many inconsistencies between attitudes and desires on the one hand and practices on the other were disclosed.

There is definite evidence that after sufficient funds for minimum needs have been provided attitudes toward money appear more important than the amount of money in determining family happiness. Foster and Wilson found in their study that some married women at every income level studied felt that their incomes were insufficient. Great differences among individuals were apparent. Some of the women with low incomes were better adjusted than those with large ²³

It is possible that the financial problems reported by married couples in the aforementioned studies are really symptoms of more fundamental conflicts. People are frequently willing to discuss money problems when they may shy away from the real reason for conflict. For example many financial disagreements between husbands and wives come from differences in philosophical values but because money is more tangible the discussion focuses on it.

In the period of establishment the major financial problem is to provide a home. In spite of wedding presents the young couple is usually forced to buy a considerable amount of home furnishings and equipment. Most of their other expenses are comparatively low since there are only two to feed and each had an opportunity to accumulate clothes before their marriage. Recreation is lower than in their dating days but more than it will be later when they are tied down by family responsibilities. A wise couple looking ahead to the next stage will provide savings and health insurance to make the coming of children easier financially.

Methods of Allocating Funds An important habit concerned with money is the method of deciding how funds shall be allocated among various categories of the budget and among family members. The three possible methods of handling family funds among members are joint control, allowance and dote. There is probably a trend toward joint control of finances by husband and wife with some difference between socio-economic

²³ R. Foster and P. H. Wilson: *Women After College* (New York: Columbia University, 1947) pp. 50-51.

economic classes Havighurst⁴ and Van Bortel²⁵ agree that in the lower socio-economic group the woman dominates financial control and Van Bortel reported that the husband controlled finances in the middle-class family. In fact a large group of middle class homemakers did not know their husbands' incomes. There may also be more joint control in rural than in urban families. Gross and Zwemer⁶ found that in their study of 382 Michigan farm and village families only 5.3 per cent of the financial plans were made by the entire family (1.3 per cent of entire sample) although two-thirds of all the plans were made jointly by husband and wife.²⁶ Thorpe and Gross found that compared with the Zwemer study a significantly higher proportion (86.8 per cent of those who made plans) of the married students studied at Michigan State University reported joint planning.²⁷ A Pennsylvania study²⁸ reported more than 80 per cent of husbands and wives favored a joint checking account but less than 20 per cent had one. There are of course other ways of joint control beside a joint checking account.

Both the allowance and dole systems are based on the dominance of one individual. In the case of the dole the person in control hands out money when and if he feels the requests of other family members are justified. This puts the burden of all decisions on this one person to say nothing of the fact that the one who has made the request feels subservient. It is almost impossible for the recipient to do any planning since he does not know when or how much money will be forthcoming. In some cases it becomes almost a game to see how much one can get out of the one handling the money. In other cases the person asking for money may not realize the true financial situation and thus may make unreasonable requests. The boss may be a benevolent despot and attempt to fulfill all demands with the result that money is spent for things which everyone concerned might agree were unimportant if expenditures were seen as a whole.

Slightly less objectionable than the dole but inferior to joint control is the allowance system. Here again one individual has control but

²⁴ Robert J. Havighurst, *Social Class Differences and Family Life Education at the Secondary Level*, *Marriage and Family Living* Vol. XII No. 4 (Fall 1950) pp. 153-155.

²⁵ Dorothy Greer Van Bortel and Irma H. Gross, *A Study of Home Management in Two Socio-Economic Classes*, *Mich. Agr. Exp. Sta. Tech. Bull.* 240, 1954.

²⁶ Irma H. Gross and Evelyn A. Zwemer, *Management in Michigan Homes*, *Mich. Agr. Exp. Sta. Tech. Bull.* 196, June 1944, p. 23.

²⁷ Alice C. Thorpe and Irma H. Gross, *Managerial Practices in the Homes of Married Students at Michigan State College*, *Quarterly Bulletin*, *Mich. Agr. Exp. Sta.* Vol. 32, No. 3 (February 1950), p. 291.

²⁸ R. R. Honey, V. Bruton, A. S. Hotchkiss, *Decision Making in the Use of Family Financial Resources*, *Penn. Agr. Exp. Sta. Bull.* 643, March 1959, p. 11.

specific regular allowances are given to other family members to cover certain expenses. For example, the husband may turn over a given amount to the homemaker to cover household operation. If the allowance is generous, she may have the incentive to manage it well in order to procure extra items for herself. Furthermore, if the homemaker is aware of other needs, she might be willing to attempt to operate the household on less. However, unless the husband is fully cognizant of current prices, it is very possible that the allowance might be insufficient to cover the items for which it is intended. The allowance system at least has this advantage over the dole: family members know the amount of money they will have and the items it must cover, and therefore can make their own decisions concerning its use. It still has the disadvantages of making some people subservient to others and at the same time piling the responsibility upon one or two persons, unless the amount and scope of the allowance are determined in family council.

The Pennsylvania study of opinions and practices of the way the wife received money showed little favorable opinion of the dole system but more practice of it than of the more favored allowance plan. Information on the allowance and dole systems was as follows:

<i>Method</i>	<i>Favorable opinion (husbands and wives)</i>	<i>Practiced (wholly or partially)</i>
Allowance (to wife)	About three fourths ²⁹	Less than one fifth ³¹
Dole (to wife)	Less than 10 per cent ³⁰	About one third ³²

Furnishings. Although one of the major problems of the period of establishment in furnishing a home, the very nature of the problem makes it difficult to generalize. Few expenditures tell so much about the personality of people as do the trappings which go to make up a home.

Financing. The amount spent for furnishings normally would be expected to vary with the interests and activities of family members with the type and size of dwelling occupied, with the amount of income and with the savings available.

Pisarro, in a study of 20 young married couples living on Long Island in 1950, found that their savings at marriage ranged from nothing to somewhat over \$5,000, and that the 11 couples who lived in unfurnished

²⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 16

³⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 17

³¹ *Ibid.*, Table 1*, p. 18

³² *Ibid.*, Table 12, p. 19

apartments had spent from \$1200 to \$2000 in furnishing their homes³³ A number of the families felt their furnishings were still inadequate and planned for future expenditures Although this group was in a favorable financial position (annual incomes ranged from \$3000 to \$6000) it is easy to see that savings are important in meeting the needs of establishing a home

Agan suggests as a rule of thumb (from which wide deviations may be made) that roughly one fourth of the value of a house be devoted to furnishing it³⁴ Since the maximum allowable for purchase of a house is usually about two or at most three times the assured annual income the suggested amount for furnishings is one half to three fourths the annual income If this large an amount is to be available within the first year or two of marriage it is clear that furnishings will be financed largely through savings accumulated before marriage or through the use of credit There is evidence from inventory studies however that families continue to accumulate their possessions over a long period of time Van Syckle found in her study of furniture purchases in Flint Michigan in 1951 that 28 per cent of the furniture owned by 419 spending units was from 1 to 5 years old 25 per cent from 6 to 10 years 27 per cent from 11 to 20 years old and the remaining pieces ranged from 21 to 160 years in age³⁵ The fact that inventories do not have to be completely assembled at once does not lessen the impact of purchasing the nucleus of these items during the early years of married life

Some families who are frequently on the move may never intend to own furniture because of the cost of transporting good furniture and the high cost and low degree of satisfaction in choosing inexpensive furniture and discarding it when a move is imminent

Principles Underlying Selection In making plans for furnishing the home the amount of money to be spent the items to be purchased desired characteristics and the approximate time of purchase should be decided Frequently plans will cover several years This is important since articles purchased now need to provide for basic needs and yet fit into the completely furnished home in later years The plan should include furnishings equipment and furniture

Furniture consists of large expensive pieces of durable goods which are expected to last for many years Furnishings are usually somewhat

³³ Grace Lucille Pisarro *Some Experiences of Twenty Young Married Couples in Meeting Regularly Recurring Expenses and Making Savings* Unpublished Masters thesis Cornell University 1940 pp 71-74

³⁴ Tessie Agan *The House Its Plan and Use* Rev (New York Lippincott 1936) p 260

³⁵ Calla Van Syckle *Consumer Use and Purchase of Furniture in Flint Michigan 1951* Mich Agr Exp Sta Tech Bull 235 October 1952 p 1

less durable than furniture and frequently are less expensive. They include such items as household linens, table accessories, curtains, and bric à brac. It is easy to forget that furnishings have a comparatively short life and that regular replacement avoids emergencies and spreads the cost over a longer period. Inexpensive furnishings can be combined with good furniture. When replaced, more expensive furnishings may be purchased if feasible. Equipment, on the other hand, consists of articles which perform tasks usually for the purpose of saving time and labor in the home and is classified as large—an automatic washing machine or small—spatulas and measuring cups.

While the accumulation of equipment beyond the necessary minimum usually awaits the filling of furniture needs, its place in the home is assuming more and more importance. This may be due to the impetus of advertising to the fact that the homemaker is gainfully employed outside the home or to the lack of space which means that each square foot of floor space must be used more effectively.

Fundamental questions must be answered before determining the items of furniture to be included in the plan. The family must decide whether quantity of items and early purchases are more important to them than quality. How long will these pieces be expected to last? It should be noted that while the plan for furnishing a home usually develops over a period of years, there is little opportunity to replace fundamentals until the Recovery period of the family cycle. For that reason, durability is an important consideration. When the family moves into a new home, will the present furnishings be replaced or must they fit into the new situation? Is it better to buy the best pieces one can afford? Inexpensive new furniture? Sturdy used furniture? Unfinished pieces? Is there consistency or balance among pieces? What kind of home is desired—formal or informal?

Should individual pieces be purchased on their own merits and to fit a particular need or should the family buy suites of furniture because the price per individual piece is lower? If some of the individual pieces are poorly designed or not needed, the average price of the pieces used may be higher than had they been purchased separately. Can pieces which play dual roles eliminate the need for purchasing two separate pieces and conserve limited space? Perhaps the most common example is a studio couch which doubles as a davenport and guest bed.

Basic Needs Filled First. No matter what the family answers to the above questions, basic needs should be considered first. These include facilities for eating, sleeping, proper lighting, sitting, and storage. For the family who wishes quality and cannot yet afford expensive permanent furniture for the dining room, a sturdy well-designed breakfast set may answer the purpose. Since sound sleep is essential to good health, it seems advisable

for a young couple to buy comfortable sturdy beds. Storage facilities are basic purchases in most apartments and small homes where space is limited and existing storage may not have been well planned. Many pieces with functional storage are so well designed that they may be shifted from bedroom to living room to dining room to hall with equal success.

Not only must the young family consider the financial and aesthetic aspects of furnishing their home but decisions made now will determine the care required and to some extent the operating costs of their home for many years to come. Light colored deep-pile rugs may be stunning but how much will it cost to keep them clean? Mahogany furniture has a beautiful shine if polished regularly but will the homemaker have time to devote to this activity both now and later when there are young children in the family?

Purchases Built Around Other Resources The young family furnishing a home must start with what they have available often no small resource. Even in an unfurnished apartment the range and refrigerator may be provided eliminating an immediate expenditure of several hundred dollars. Wedding gifts may fill a number of their needs for accessories or pieces of equipment. Perhaps a rug or piece of furniture rescued from a parental attic will be the starting point and other selections will be made to fit in with the original possession.

Another resource which is available to many young couples in furnishing their homes consists of their own interests abilities time and energy. The homemaker's ability to arrange furniture attractively and functionally can give focus to a room while her ability to grow plants will give the home a lived-in look. The husband may be able to build simple pieces of furniture or refinish old pieces.

Stage II—The Expanding Family

The Expanding Family covers a long period compared to the Beginning Family lasting from the birth of the first child until he leaves home. It includes three or four substages: The child bearing and preschool years, the elementary school period, the high school period, and for some families a college period. With more than one child in the family two or more of these substages may overlap.

The changes in family patterns in the active parenthood stages of the cycle are due to an increased number of family members to the growing feeling of responsibility on the part of the husband and wife and to the greater income and increased reserves. While an increase in family size is a major factor in setting the patterns of use of family resources, the age of the family members is also significant. Although an infant a

few months old demands large blocks of its mother's time that same child when eighteen and in college makes much greater financial than time demands upon his parents Yet in both cases the family is in the Expanding stage of the life cycle

FINANCIAL PROBLEMS

By this stage of the cycle the average family is fully established and the parents are completely on their own Parents are in most cases willing to help the young couple out of difficulties but this is most typical when the latter are getting started ³⁴

In addition the two generations may be widely separated geographically As problems arise the younger family more and more expects to solve them alone asking for help only in true emergencies Children represent another reason families feel increased responsibility during this period While there is no paternal instinct which makes all parents feel this a duty as is evidenced by cases of desertion nonsupport and so forth for most couples the coming of children is a sobering occasion If a start toward provision for economic security was not made in the first period it is usually made now The mother is no longer completely free to support herself should the father die suddenly and the total needs are greater since more members need protection Physical health is held important by American families and many if not most parents feel a responsibility for providing adequate medical care for their children For example many parents have their children's teeth checked semi-annually although they themselves may wait until a toothache occurs before seeking attention Another aspect of the increased responsibility is concern with education Although free public education provides largely for the first years of a child's educational program more and more emphasis is being placed upon college training This requires a long term program of saving for most families

Although there is a lack of statistical studies showing the use of resources in the various substages observation indicates certain marked characteristics

In the child bearing and preschool stage medical costs are high In addition the mother usually needs either paid help increased use of commercial facilities or more labor saving equipment to conserve her time and energy Housing costs may go up if the family needs more space or if they decide to move from an apartment to a house to provide a play yard There is less time for recreation and the costs of recreation away from home are increased by baby sitter fees Young children make tre

³⁴ Marvin B. Sussman "Helping Patterns in the Middle Class Family" *American Sociological Review* Vol. 18 (February 1953) pp. 22-28

mendous demands upon the homemaker's time. Special plans need to be made so the husband and wife can have time together.

During the elementary school period no particular item of expenditure is outstanding but there is an increasing demand in most categories. Expensive equipment such as a bicycle is desired. Early in this stage the children may battle the usual round of communicable diseases. Later costs for school supplies will increase. Children often outgrow clothing before it is worn out, and their play is hard on clothing. Time for participation in out-of-school activities will be in demand for both children and parents. Children in this stage have tremendous amounts of energy for which outlets must be found.

The high school period brings even more rapid increases in expenses. The fact that high schools are distant from homes of many students means costs for lunches and transportation. In addition adolescents are growing rapidly requiring a tremendous amount of food. Keeping up with the Joneses becomes of vital concern to adolescent family members. They want to do and have what the crowd does. School activities and parties become more expensive and absorb a larger part of the adolescent's time and energy. Dating means that less recreation time is spent by the family as a unit. The family car may become a bone of contention as several possible drivers vie for its use.

The college stage is the most expensive period of all. Many families find it necessary to draw on savings during this period, particularly if the student lives away from home and must pay for room, board, and transportation. Fees even in state-supported institutions are higher than for local high schools, and books and supplies are expensive. Clothes for a wide variety of occasions are required. Even parents must be on display when visiting the campus. For months at a time the homemaker's day in this period is similar to that of the later stages in the cycle when the children have left home to be independent.

Through these substages run the threads of the general costs of rearing children and the special costs of education.

Costs of Rearing a Child One of the most telling summaries of the probable costs of the Expanding stage of the family cycle is found in an article by Louis I. Dublin entitled "What It Costs to Raise a Child to 18." Using statistics for 1935-1936 as a basis, Dr. Dublin totaled the cost per child for the first 18 years of life in three different income groups. In such items as housing only that part of the cost which can be attributed to each child was considered. On the advice of Dr. Dublin and by the use of the Consumers Price Index the costs have been updated to 1960 and are given in Table 6-2. The total costs ranged from \$15,560 for a family with an annual income of \$6,200 to a high of \$39,590 for a family

with an income of \$25 000 Table 6.2 classifies these expenditures according to the type of expenditure The figures given are for urban families since the addition of a child to a farm family requires fewer money expenditures

TABLE 6.2 What Parents Spend to Raise a Child to 18 Years of Age

TYPE OF EXPENDITURE**	URBAN FAMILIES		
	Annual Income \$ 6 200	Annual Income \$12 500	Annual Income \$25 000
Cost of birth	\$ 630	\$ 1 370	\$ 2 110
Food	5 670	7 620	9 990
Clothing	1 460	2 730	4 520
Shelter	4 550	7 420	12 450
Medical care	630	1 060	1 480
School supplies	150	370	930
Other expenditures	2 700	5 040	8 120
	<u>\$15 800</u>	<u>\$25 610</u>	<u>\$39 600</u>

Adapted from Louis I. Dublin, "What It Costs to Raise a Child to 18," *Woman's Home Companion* (May 1947), p. 38. Copyright 1947 The Crowell Collier Publishing Co. Costs updated to 1960 with permission of Dr. Dublin. Boys and girls craged together.

Dr. Dublin closed by saying:³⁷

The child endowed with good health and education is the foundation stone for the next generation. And when these young people reach the age of eighteen they represent economic values far greater than their cost of upbringing. The nation—and the family—greatest asset is its children.

Education. Education is without question one of the major responsibilities undertaken by a family in Stage II. The actual proportion of the family income spent for education is low except in the college years. In most studies of use of income, expenses for education are grouped in other and miscellaneous and so are not available for study. Elementary and secondary education in America are examples of the tremendous contribution the community makes to the total real income of individual families. Elementary and high schools are supported by taxation and only the minor costs of books and supplies, organizations and so forth are met directly by the individual family. These items ranged from \$10

³⁷ Excerpt from Louis I. Dublin, "What It Costs to Raise a Child to 18," *Woman's Home Companion* (May 1947), p. 39. Copyright 1947 The Crowell Collier Publishing Company.

to \$35 in the City Workers Budgets priced in 1959³⁸ The variation in amount depended largely upon whether or not textbooks were provided by the community The amount spent for education is not in proportion to its significance compulsory education laws indicate more accurately the importance American families place upon formal education However formal schooling by no means represents the entire picture of a child's education Informal education may be more significant than formal education in determining the interests of an individual and the direction in which his abilities will be developed

Formal Education Marked improvement in educational achievement among adults has occurred in recent decades In 1950 a greater proportion of young adults had completed their education at each school level than the proportion of middle aged or older adults who had reached the same level³⁹ In general fewer adults living on farms had completed various levels of education than the same age groups living in urban areas It should be remembered that the data were based on where individuals lived when the census was taken and not their location while they were in school Comparison of men and women of similar age and color or residence reveals that the women are more likely than the men to have completed elementary school and high school in 1950 but except on farms less likely than men to have completed college⁴⁰

The achievement of a formal education is important but the thoughtful person realizes that two people holding the same degree may have widely different educations depending upon the quality of the schools attended the person's ability and his willingness to apply himself It is interesting to note that in discussions of a college education as a goal money is frequently listed as the most important resource and little attention is paid to whether or not the individual has the requisite ability or interest This is an area in which it is important that the parents do not project their own unfulfilled desires for a college education upon their children An enlightening experience for most and an important asset professionally college may be completely frustrating to the young person who is neither capable nor interested

Costs of a college education have risen to the point that financing it in many cases must be based on a variety of sources These include past present and future money income of both the family and the college

³⁸ "The Interim City Workers Family Budget" *Monthly Labor Review* Vol 83 No 8 (August 1960) Tables 3 and 4 p 789

³⁹ *Rural Family Living Charts for 1953 Agricultural Outlook Conference* Bureau of Human Nutrition and Home Economics U.S. Dept of Agriculture October 1952 p 72

⁴⁰ *Ibid.*, p 70

student as well as the contribution of society in the form of scholarships for the abler students

A large study of undergraduate costs made in 1952-53 gave these proportions of cost in descending order of importance of sources ⁴¹

Source	Per cent of total cost
Current family contribution	40.5
Parents	38.5
Other	2.0
Earnings of student	26.5
Current year	17.0
Summer	9.5
Long term savings (family and student)	20.0
Scholarships	4.8
Borrowed (probably by student)	1.5
All other	6.9
Total	<u>100.0</u>

One of the major costs of a college education arises from the fact that it necessitates living away from home in most cases. Cost of room and board constituted five sixths of the average budget at public colleges and two-thirds at private institutions in 1952-53.⁴² Therefore a college education may be more easily provided by those families who live in or near enough to a college community to make commuting feasible. However many families if they can afford it send their children away to school even though good educational facilities are available locally. Their reason for doing so is to provide an opportunity for the student to develop the emotional independence which is needed when he leaves home permanently.

Total costs varied between publicly and privately controlled types of colleges in general being less at the publicly controlled ones. During 1956-1957 they averaged \$1500 a school year at the public institutions and \$2000 at the private ones.⁴³ It should be recognized that all college costs are subsidized by society.

Informal Education Much informal education requires the expenditure of money. Individual lessons in music, dancing, and so forth come

⁴¹ Ernest V. Hollis and Associates, *Costs of Attending College* (U.S. Dept. of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington, D.C., 1957), Bull. 1957, No. 9, Table 8.

⁴² *Ibid.* p. 25.

⁴³ *Ibid.* p. 29.

under this heading keeping up with the Joneses is frequently a significant factor in determining the number and kinds of such lessons. An analysis of the child's capabilities provides a much better criterion for determining their desirability. In addition parents should remember that equality of treatment does not demand that every child should have the same type of extracurricular lessons. One child may find great satisfaction and opportunity for expression in music lessons while another may find a similar outlet in water colors. Neither should be forced into the other's mold. True equality of treatment would be provision for training in the areas in which the child shows both ability and interest. Some exploratory opportunities may be needed to determine where these interests and abilities lie. Fortunately for the family with little money to spend on individual lessons many such interests can be developed through groups organized as extracurricular activities at school. In some cases musical instruments are provided by the school at least for a long enough period to determine whether it is feasible for the family to purchase them.

One's education is influenced tremendously by the intellectual interests which are represented in the home. The City Worker's Budget provides only a meager amount for reading materials including a daily newspaper about \$15 for magazines and \$5 for books annually.⁴⁴ This may be typical of American families today for radio and television compete with reading. To many however reading whether it be the daily news fiction or nonfiction is a creative experience far removed from the passive one of listening to others and accepting their interpretation. Parents have a real opportunity for opening these vistas to their children. A clue to the importance of reading for oneself is found in the following quotation.⁴⁵

Let us admit that in recent years the use of books has been intruded upon by other recognized holds on the minds of men. I think it perhaps a mistake to define the radio and television precisely as instruments of communication. These instruments of modern commotion are actually more instruments of impact. They require a more passive participation—often none whatsoever. They represent the easier way. They are a substitute—for the lazy mind. There is no time for reflection. One cannot stop to think. One cannot re-read and ponder a paragraph.

The importance of owning books music and works of art so that one can reflect upon their meaning is also implied for to do so means going back to them again and again.

Another important type of informal training is in the use of money as preparation for living in a money world. Earlier some of the values of

⁴⁴ The Interim City Worker's Family Budget, op cit Table 7 p. 800.

⁴⁵ S. B. Lunt, "The Heritage of the Printed Word," *Saturday Review of Literature* (August 18, 1951) inside cover.

	1900		1940		1949	
75 & OVER	10 01		00 001		100 001	
70-74	10 01		20 00		100 001	
65-69	20 01		200 000		000 000	
60-64	100 001		2000 0001		10000 0000	
55-59	000 000		10000 00001		00000 00001	
50-54	0000 0000		200000 000001		100000 000001	
45-49	00000 00001		1000000 0000001		1000000 000000	
40-44	100000 000001		0000000 0000001		0000000 0000001	
35-39	0000000 0000001		10000000 00000001		10000000 00000001	
30-34	10000000 00000001		00000000 00000001		10000000 00000001	
25-29	00000000 00000001		100000000 000000001		00000000 00000001	
20-24	100000000 000000001		000000000 000000000		10000000 00000001	
15-19	1000000000 0000000001		0000000000 0000000001		10000000 00000001	
10-14	10000000000 00000000001		0000000000 0000000001		10000000 00000001	
5-9	100000000000 000000000001		1000000000 000000000		00000000 00000001	
0-4	000000000000 0000000000001		00000000 00000001		000000000 000000001	
	MALE	FEMALE	MALE	FEMALE	MALE	FEMALE

FIGURE 6-10 Profile of Age Distribution

Each symbol represents 1 per cent of males or females
 Drawn from the 1949 Census by Nathaniel W. Shock with the permission of the author of the publication
 of the U.S. Bureau of the Census, National Research Planning Board, Washington, D.C., 1943 and
 Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports—Population Statistics, Series P-25, N-39
 May 1950

than less intense. Not only is there a need for social action in meeting these problems but it is also important for individual families to be analytical in meeting the needs of the elderly in their families and for younger members to anticipate the problems they themselves will meet on aging. It is now recognized that most if not all the problems of the period of retirement are the outgrowth of earlier stages in the cycle and that much can be done in those earlier stages to lessen their intensity.

Problems. There is a large literature developing on the many varied problems of the Retirement period. This section however will focus on those concerned with availability and use of resources. The ones to be considered here are work, income, time and living arrangements. It is encouraging to learn that a social competence index developed in a Kansas City research study¹⁰ showed between ages 40 and 70 only slight decrease in ability to deal with problems.

¹⁰ Background Paper on Population Trends: Social and Economic Implications. White House Conference on Aging, Washington, D.C., January 9-12, 1961, p. 10.

Work In our culture having a regular job to do has been essential for self respect at least to the able bodied male. In the older years transition from accustomed work is difficult for the man and to a lesser extent for the full time homemaker. The employed woman's transition is similar to that of a man.

While it is commonly agreed that a homemaker's adjustment in the period of retirement is easier than a man's she too faces a reorientation. Her retirement may begin even earlier than her husband's. She experiences a definite let down in her responsibilities when the children leave home frequently when she is only about 45. Flora Rose describes this change which may not be so apparent as retirement from a job in the following words:⁵⁰

Anyone who has been closely associated with many women of all ages is familiar with the contentment felt by most mothers while their children are still at the elementary school age. Those are the years when as a mother the woman feels wanted, needed, cherished and esteemed. Then her respect for herself is deeply and sincerely felt for she recognizes herself of supreme importance as a contributor to the fundamental processes of giving, caring for and protecting life. And this in spite of the all too prevalent low professional rating which she, her husband and the community give to the housekeeping part of her homemaking job.

The retiring homemaker may voice her problem in this way: "What shall I do with myself now? How shall I fill my empty hours?" She means more than this; however, for now she feels the need to find ways in which to re-establish her status and self-esteem.

The homemaker's transition is however easier than her husband's in that she has been accustomed to being at home all day and she can continue many of the same activities which she has done previously, adapting the amount of work to her capability. Furthermore, her husband's retirement affords her greater companionship than previously while he is often lonesome for the many people he met in a day's routine.

For many men the retirement from paid work is not easy. Many people feel sure that it will be a wonderful release from routine, only to discover that time hangs heavy on their hands and they have lost their purpose for living. A common comment is that old people do not wear out, they rust out. For others retirement slips up on them and they are suddenly confronted with the end of their active participation in business or industry. For this group, since there is little or no preparation, the effects of the adjustment may be drastic.

Compulsory retirement at a given age, usually 65, forces many capable

⁵⁰ Flora Rose, "The Case of the Retiring Homemaker," reprinted from the *Kitchen Reporter*, published by Keltmator (September, 1952).

persons out of work they still wish to do and are able to do. The proportion of persons over 65 in the labor force has decreased drastically for men, increased somewhat for women. A further decline is expected for men.

	<i>In labor force³¹</i>	
	<i>Men over 65</i>	<i>Women over 65</i>
1890	Over $\frac{3}{4}$	7.6 per cent
1955	38.5 per cent	10.3 per cent

A policy of gradual retirement is psychologically more wholesome. While part-time work might be an excellent solution for the person who wishes to let down gradually, most labor unions disapprove of this plan. Professional people can do so more easily. A physician may be able to limit the size of his practice yet continue to use the skills and judgment he has developed over a long period of time. A classic example is Dr. Lillian J. Martin, a retired psychiatrist who opened a consulting clinic for men and women over 50 which became a model for communities. She continued to operate the clinic until her death at the age of 92 in 1948. This clinic was particularly important both as an example of a professional person who was able to adapt her work to her changing abilities and as a badly needed service for the aging.

Another way in which older workers can avoid the sudden change from a full-time job to full-time retirement is to accept a job which is less exacting in its demands and which may be less well paid. For some the adjustment to this downgrading is more difficult than to accept retirement itself. However, for those who can do so, it may be a great help by giving them some purposive activity.

If income is not the major factor, the transition between employment and retirement can be made through nonremunerative work. If such tasks are to fill the psychological needs of the elderly, the attitudes of people in general must be changed, Shock says.

We also need reorientation of people generally and a change in the current concept that the social usefulness of an individual can be measured only in terms of dollars. People must be made to realize that there are many activities which may be of great benefit to the community which can be performed by retired older people without monetary rewards.

Activities in Later Years. One of the suggestions for a successful retirement is to retire *to*—not *from* something. This involves making plans

³¹ White House Conference on Aging, *op cit*, p. 33.

³² Reprinted from *Trends in Gerontology* by Nathan W. Shock, with the permission of the author and of the publishers, Stanford University Press (1951), p. 26.

activities in retirement before that period actually arrives. These will in most cases be based on a continuation of some activities of earlier stages of the life cycle. Some of these may have been dormant during the crowded years of the Expanding stage. Even though active participation may have been crowded out during these peak years, there are many ways of keeping an interest alive. The wise individual recognizes early the fallacy of the woman who is completely engulfed in her family or the man whose entire life revolves about his work.

Retirement provides an opportunity to start activities for which time was not available earlier. One home economist plans to compile a source book of research in her subject matter field when she retires. Although she has done considerable professional writing and the need for such a source book is great, there have always been more pressing demands on her. An individual who plans to fill his retirement with new activities, he is more likely to be able to do so if he has considered what activities he might want to do. There are the unusual examples of people like Grandma Moses who started painting for the first time in her seventies. Although many people question their ability to take on new activities, psychologists have shown that most people have ability to learn in later years. In planning a program of activities for retirement, balance is needed, as in other periods. There are three kinds of activities which may be used as substitutes for paid work: social contacts, creative activities, and community service.

Social contacts. It is not always easy to provide social contacts since health and transportation facilities may limit the opportunities of elderly people to meet and work with other persons. For this reason, housing arrangements may be important in answering this problem. However, many older people, because of their keen interest in people and their desire for social contacts, make the effort to attend organizations and are not nearly so house bound as one might imagine. Even when weather or health makes it impossible for them to be out, telephone calls and correspondence can keep them in touch with others. Whether or not others are eager to maintain these contacts depends largely upon the attitude of the older person himself. If he is a happy, interested, forward-looking person, he has something to contribute to the relationship.

Creative activities. In addition to social contacts, the plan should if possible include some creative activities. These may be useful or engaged in simply for the fun of it. There is such a wide variety of activities ranging from writing to gardening, from composing music to tying fishing flies, that it seems unnecessary to list them. Hobby shows suggest innumerable ideas. The basic reason for including creative activities is that there is a deep satisfaction which comes from having done something original which one never gains from passively accepting the products of

others creativity or imagination. In some cases such hobbies may develop into a source of income.

Community services. The inclusion of community service answers the universal need to feel useful. Fortunately there are many opportunities for community service although many are not yet fully recognized.

It [community service] can bring opportunities to join with others in a common effort—always a stimulating experience. It can even take on the nature of a chain reaction hobby for one thing that is predictable about almost any community is that efforts to meet one need will usually uncover a host of others.³³

Bernard Baruch, an admittedly unusual person, devoted his years of retirement to being an unpaid public servant and earned all the respect implied by the term elder statesman. His example might well be followed on a smaller scale by retired people in their own communities. One cannot say what started Baruch on his life of service, but most older people need the stimulus of having their opinions asked and being made to feel the importance of their contribution.

An elderly person can feel useful in many other ways. One elderly woman offers her services as a baby sitter with no thought of charge to a young couple who could otherwise not afford an evening's recreation together and who are more content to leave their children with an experienced person than with a teen-ager. Another does the mending for a harassed young mother, freeing her from a seemingly endless job which she heartily dislikes. An elderly man spends hours repairing toys which are given to underprivileged children at Christmas. Another elderly man is proud of his years of service as corresponding secretary for an organization which sends out hundreds of notices of meetings during a year's time. Younger people can greatly increase the satisfactions of these jobs which so many elderly people do willingly and well by expressing their appreciation.

Change in type. An important factor in making a plan for activities is their suitability to the changing abilities of the individual, his income and the space available. Many activities formerly enjoyed may have to be omitted, particularly those of a strenuous nature. Other activities, interesting though they may be, will prove to be too expensive for the reduced income of retirement. Frequently, however, some aspect of this interest may be within the range of possibility. For example, though travel may prove too costly, one can indulge an interest in far places by reading such periodicals as the *National Geographic Magazine*. Since retirement may bring changes in housing as well as in other aspects of living, the amount of space required by various activities should be

³³ Kathryn Clow, *Cells & Ready to Retire*, Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 187, 1952, p. 14.

considered. The activities which can be carried on in a single room particularly if it is a bedroom are very different and more limited in scope from those which can be managed in a home complete with basement workroom. To determine what activities will fit their situation the couple preferably before retirement should take a realistic inventory of their interests and talents, their health, their finances, and what their manner of living will be. Such an inventory should be made with the aid of all the objective help available. For example, a complete physical checkup is necessary to determine what their physical limitations are; subjective feelings are not enough.

Time The management of time in the Retirement period in the later years has been implied in the foregoing section on substitutes for earlier activities and was shown hypothetically for the homemaker in Figure 6.7. The development of satisfactory patterns of the use of time is one of the real problems of this part of the life cycle.

Income The major problem for many families at this stage is the amount of income available in relation to needs and wants. Regardless of the adequacy of the income of a retired family as far as actual needs are concerned, it is apt to be less than that to which they are accustomed. Thus they have to adjust to eliminating or reducing many expenditures which in the past they have taken for granted. For example, they may not be able to make as generous contributions to charity as they have done previously. These adjustments are particularly difficult for people to whom money *per se* is important or for whom keeping up with the Joneses has been a major goal. Thus in old age as through the earlier periods of life, one's use of resources and the satisfaction derived from their use are dependent upon one's standards and values. Success in adjusting to the limited income of retirement, in case it is adequate for the family's basic needs, will depend to a large extent upon the willingness and ability of the elderly couple to evaluate what they consider important.

Statistics on income according to age consistently show an income drop for those 65 years and over compared to incomes of those at the height of their earning power. Family income was reported in 1958 for the older age group as \$2666, but half a million families with men heads and one million with women heads had at that time median incomes around \$1500.⁵⁴ The estimate of the cost of a minimum adequate budget in the same year was at least \$2500 for a couple in a city.⁵⁵

⁵⁴ White House Conference on Aging, *op cit*, p. 29.

⁵⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 29.

The present Social Security program has done much to improve the economic position of many aged persons. However, despite recent extension of both coverage and benefits, in 1958 31.8 per cent of families still had no coverage at all⁵⁶ and others were undoubtedly inadequately protected. As the data below show, it is the second most important source of income of older persons, employment earnings being at the top of list.

Estimated Aggregate Income of Persons over 65 before Taxes⁵⁷

(Billions of Dollars)

Employment earnings	90-100
OASDI	67
Public retirement systems	23
Public assistance	17
Private pension plans	10
Other	43.83
Total	250.300

One of the unpredictable and at times extremely heavy drains on the budget of older people is medical care. In 1960 it averaged \$177 per person per year for them compared with \$85 per person per year for persons under 65.⁵⁸ The older group averaged 1778 hospital days per year (per 1000 persons) compared with 661 hospital days per year (per 1000 persons) for those under 65.⁵⁹

Living Arrangements Living arrangements during old age are bound up with income and with health. Continuing to live in independent households throughout life is the desired arrangement of most older people. There is evidence that the best personal adjustment in old age is related to continuing to live in one's own home as long as possible. Perhaps the major reason for this is the fact that in their own home older persons have the position of authority as the head or joint heads of the household. In living with others, their status becomes a dependent one with decidedly less prestige and authority. The proportion who achieve this type of living decreases as age increases. In 1950, of all older persons, more than 80 per cent lived in their own households between ages 60 and 64, but only 55 per cent of those 75 years and older.⁶⁰ Those not living in their own households or in quasi households (institutions

⁵⁶ L. A. Epstein, *Money Income of Aged Persons: A 10 Year Review, 1948 to 1958*, *Social Security Bulletin*, Vol. 22, No. 6 (June 1959), Table 2, p. 4.

⁵⁷ White House Conference on Aging, *op. cit.* p. 28.

⁵⁸ *The New York Times*, Feb. 12, 1961, Graph p. E10.

⁵⁹ *Ibid.*

⁶⁰ White House Conference on Aging, *op. cit.* pp. 25-26.

of various kinds and hotels) lived in other households chiefly with relatives

There is little question that one of the major changes in manner of living experienced by many elderly persons comes as a result of living with their children. The change is particularly difficult since for years the children were dependent upon the parents and now the situation is reversed. Arrangements are seldom easy when two generations of adults live together. They can, however, be made easier if there is sufficient space to allow each group privacy and if both generations objectively analyze the problems to be faced.

In 1950 57 per cent of persons 65 years and over lived in quasi households.⁶¹ The aged in nursing homes and all other institutions increased twice as fast between 1940 and 1950 as the proportion of aged in the population.⁶²

Institutions may be the traditional almshouse which fortunately is disappearing or homes that are operated as charitable institutions supported by philanthropic groups such as fraternal organizations, churches and labor unions. Facilities for men are much more limited in number than for women. Limited medical services, inadequate programs of activities, lack of standards of supervision and housing built with large open wards or dormitories which necessitate the separation of husbands and wives are some of the reasons why these institutions have provided little but freedom from worry over finances to the elderly people living there.⁶³ Many of these faults are being overcome and emphasis is being placed upon privacy along with opportunity for group association and security.⁶⁴ These facilities are, however, still tremendously limited.

Cavan summarizes her findings on the relative advantages of different living arrangements for elderly persons by saying:⁶⁵

Clearly more institutions of the present type are not the answer, nor do rooming houses meet all the problems. Homes with adult children have both advantages and disadvantages. A new type of living arrangement is needed that will combine the economic and physical security provided by the institution, the personal contacts found in their own home or the home of adult children, and the activities and sense of usefulness of the person who is still living independently.

A few philanthropic groups and individuals in the United States have experimented with providing modified group living for elderly people.

⁶¹ Ibid. p. 25.

⁶² *Background Materials on Social Services for the Aged*, White House Conference on Aging, pp. 41-42.

⁶³ Shock, *op. cit.* pp. 51-52.

⁶⁴ Lee E. Graham, "Old Folks at Home—Their Own," *The New York Times Magazine* (November 9, 1952), pp. 17-51 ff.

⁶⁵ R. S. Cavan, "Family Life and Family Substitutes in Old Age," *American Sociological Review*, Vol. 14, No. 1 (February 1949), p. 83.

Some of these developments have taken the form of apartments with a central cafeteria and some housekeeping services provided; others have been groups of individual cottages with some joint facilities such as recreation rooms. Most of them have had some arrangement for emergency medical care. In Copenhagen, Denmark, where considerable progress has been made in the construction of apartment units subsidized by the government and made available to elderly people, the housing units have been scattered throughout the city, making it unnecessary to uproot the older people completely from their accustomed environment. Each center has a trained nurse as superintendent.⁶⁶ Whether communities of elderly couples alone or of mixed age groups are preferable is still a moot question, and one might add a rhetorical question since today's aged will have difficulty in finding suitable housing in either type of area.

SUMMARY

The life cycle is a comparatively new concept which recognizes that the ebb and flow of resources and demands upon them follow rather characteristic patterns during the lifetime of a family. Both a three-stage and a more detailed eight-substage family life cycle were discussed.

It is important to understand the family life cycle for effective handling of resources at any stage and for predicting the probable flow of resources from stage to stage. Adequate solution of the problems of each stage influences the success of later stages.

The early stage of the life cycle, though short, is highly significant. Managerial habits that will last for many years are formed at this time. The furnishing of a home may extend over a long period, but its major impact upon the family comes in this first stage.

The Expanding stage of the family life cycle begins with the birth of the first child and ends with the last child leaving home. When costs of rearing a child from birth to 18 are summarized, the total is surprisingly large. However, it is a small amount when compared to the potential resource to the nation which these young people represent.

In the Expanding stage, education of their children is a primary responsibility of parents in spite of the fact that a large part of formal education today is provided at public expense. Education may be both formal and informal. Cost of a college education is a matter of serious concern.

The Contracting family has assumed increasing importance due to the larger numbers of persons in this age group and the increased duration of the period itself. In this stage, major problems that the family faces stem from cessation of accustomed work with its effects upon income and the use of time. They also come from failing health and strength.

⁶⁶ Shock, *op. cit.*, pp. 50-51.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

- 1 What other problems beside those discussed in this chapter are important to the recently established family? To what extent are these problems concerned with management? With relationships? Where can you find help in solving these problems?
- 2 Which method of allocating funds discussed on pages 164-166 is in use in your family today? Which method do you plan to use when you are married? Why?
- 3 Assuming that you are convinced of the advantages of the democratic method of handling money and assuming that your fiancé is accustomed to and satisfied with the dote method, how would you proceed?
- 4 Plan the complete furnishing of a three room apartment for a young couple who are about to be married. Describe their backgrounds briefly including the amount of savings they had before marriage. Build the plan around the items they already have on hand (wedding gifts and so forth). Are the gifts you have mentioned realistic in number, type and in expense for people with their backgrounds?
- 5 Estimate the cost of the furniture, equipment and furnishings in learning experience 4. In light of their savings, how will their purchases be financed?
- 6 Describe the house or apartment in which your family is living at present. How many times has the family moved since your father and mother were married? In how many instances were the moves due to changes in the life cycle? Explain. If your family has not moved since early marriage, evaluate the house in terms of which stages it served most effectively and those stages in which it was least adequate for the demands of the life cycle.
- 7 Make a plan for a family with a moderate income who wish to be financially able to send their three children (each two years apart in age) to college. Can they normally expect to meet these expenses out of regular income? How early would you suggest they start their program of providing for college? What methods would you recommend for providing the money? Can the children have a part in the plans? How?
- 8
 - a From popular magazines or newspapers collect articles which are indicative of the increased emphasis upon the problems of our aging population.
 - b Recall, if possible, any tangible evidence of this interest in your own community—for example, counselling services, housing specifically set aside for older families in housing developments.
- 9 Make a list of suggestions for families in which two generations of adults are living together.
- 10 Is it an advantage or a disadvantage for a young family to live in a community which is very homogenous in regard to the age groups of the families? Justify your answer.

- 11 Describe an elderly couple whom you have known both before and after the retirement of the breadwinner. What changes were apparent in their manner of living after his or her retirement? To what extent would you say these changes were due to reduced income and to what extent to changing interests? Have you any justifications?
- 12 Describe the activities which you now find most satisfying both from the standpoint of recreation and work. Evaluate each in terms of its probable suitability to the stages of the life cycle which are still ahead of you. Considering as a group those which you feel you will have both the ability and the interest to pursue in old age, do they fill all the criteria suggested in this chapter for selecting activities for the later years?

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- AGAN, Tessie: Housing and the Family Life Cycle. *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 42 (May 1950)
- Basic Facts on the Health and Economic Status of Older Americans. Staff Report to Special Committee on Aging. United States Senate (Washington: Supt. of Documents, 1961)
- BIGELOW, Howard F.: Toward a Theory of Family Finance. *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 23 (April 1951)
- : What Are Usual Family Patterns? *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 42 (January 1950)
- CAVAN, Ruth Shonle: Family Life and Family Substitutes in Old Age. *American Sociological Review* Vol 14 (February 1949)
- CLARK, Lincoln H. (Ed.): *The Life Cycle and Consumer Behavior*. Consumer Behavior Vol II (New York: University Press, 1955)
- COOLEY, Donald G.: Can You Predict Your Family's Future? *Better Homes and Gardens* Vol 28 (December 1951)
- COWLES, May L. and KNOTT, Margery: Financial Security Among Wisconsin Rural Farm Aged Persons. *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 52 No 2 (February 1960) pp 99-102
- DUBLIN, Louis I.: *The Facts of Life from Birth to Death* (New York: Macmillan, 1951)
- : "What It Costs to Raise a Child to 18." *Woman's Home Companion* Vol 74 (May 1947)
- EPSTEIN, Lenore A.: Money Income of Aged Persons: A 10-Year Review, 1948 to 1958. *Social Security Bulletin* Vol 22 No 3 (June 1959) pp 3-11
- FELDMAN, Frances Lomas: *The Family in a Money World* (New York: Family Service Association of America, 1957). Chapter III: Beginning the Cycle of Family Life
- GLICK, Paul C.: *American Families* (New York: Wiley, 1957)
- : "The Life Cycle of the Family." *Marriage and Family Living* Vol XVII No 1 (February 1955) pp 3-9
- GROSS, Irma H.: *Measuring Home Management*. Mich. Agr. Exp. Sta. Circ. Bull. 211, 1948

- GUTHEIM Frederick *Houses for Family Living* (New York Woman's Foundation 1948)
- HOLLIS E. V and Associates *Costs of Attending College* (U S Department of Health Education and Welfare Washington D C 1958) Bull 1957—No 9
- HUNTER, Starley M Homemakers Name Their Home Problems *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 63 No 6 (June 1961) pp 425-427
- PREVEY Esther Developing Good Habits in the Use of Money *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 48 (February 1946)
- SHOCK Nathan W *Trends in Gerontology* (Stanford Cal Stanford University 1951)
- STOTZ Margaret S The BLS Interim Budget for a Retired Couple *Monthly Labor Review* Vol 83 No 10 (November 1960) pp 1141-1157
- SYDENSTRICKER Edgar KING Wilford I and WIEHL Dorothy The Income Cycle in the Life of the Wage-earner *Public Health Reports* Vol 39 (August 1924)
- THORPE, Alice and GROSS Irma H Managerial Practices in the Homes of Married Students at Michigan State College *Quarterly Bulletin Mich Agr Exp Sta* Vol 32 (February 1950)
- VAN BORTFL Dorothy Greey and GROSS Irma H *A Study of Home Management in Two Socio-Economic Classes* Mich Agr Exp Sta Tech. Bull 240 1954
- White House Conference on Aging Washington D C January 9-12 1961 *Chart Book* Superintendent of Documents U S Government Printing Office Washington D C.
- The Nation and Its Older People* Superintendent of Documents U S Government Printing Office Washington D C

7

Factors Affecting the Use of Resources

Although the basic principles underlying the managerial process are the same under varying circumstances it would be unrealistic not to recognize that managerial problems differ among families. A number of general factors play a significant part in determining how resources will be used. Three of the seven very important factors are discussed in greater detail elsewhere: the standard of living in Chapter 2 as related to values and goals¹; the family life cycle in the preceding chapter; and size of income in Chapter 11. Factors to be considered in this chapter are: the socio-economic group to which a family belongs; size of money income; the size and composition of a family; the gainful employment of the homemaker; and the location of the family.

The stage of the family life cycle is so important a factor that it is the topic of an entire chapter. The importance of the standard of living although less obvious is also great. It is different from the other factors in that it is quite subjective and that it exerts an over-all influence. Notwithstanding the effect of size of income, residence, size of family and so forth, what an individual or family considers fit and proper will be of tremendous importance in the distribution of their resources. If a person considers it essential to follow the group then his use of resources will be very like that of other families of similar size, income and residence. On the other hand if he is individual in his choices, this in itself will perhaps prove to be more significant than any other single factor in determining his use of resources.

Most of the objective information available shows the effect of the various factors upon the use of money. Once the interrelatedness of resources is recognized it becomes obvious that there is a corresponding effect upon resources other than money. Many homely examples could

¹ See Chapter 2 pp. 45-55

be cited to illustrate this but in general emphasis in the present chapter will be placed upon presenting information where it is available and pointing out gaps in scientific knowledge where they exist. The effect of each factor upon use of money will first be considered and then its effect upon time, energy and other less tangible resources.

Some of these factors are especially closely related to each other. For example, size and composition of family and the stage of the family life cycle have some aspects in common yet each concept is unique and therefore they are handled separately. Furthermore, the factors do not operate in a vacuum and it is very difficult to isolate completely the effects of a single one. Despite these difficulties, the authors will attempt to highlight the effect of each factor separately.

SOCIO ECONOMIC STATUS

Although in a democracy people tend to ignore the existence of social classes, there is without question an observable difference in the lives of families based on their socio-economic status. Little attention was paid to stratification in American society until the end of World War II. Reissman attributes this both to a dislike for the underlying philosophy of class distinctions and the fact that rapid mobility was possible. As a result, status rather than class has been stressed in America. The two concepts vary in that class implies differences based on social and economic forces beyond the control of the individual while status suggests differences based on the person's achievements.² Stratification in America has emphasized prestige more than power and is community centered rather than nation wide in scope.

Studying of Status

Studying stratification in a diverse society is difficult. An individual has many different positions in a society, each of which may have distinct status implications. Therefore, the individual's status is a composite of these different and sometimes contrasting aspects rather than the result of any one. To complicate the situation further, these aspects and their interrelationships are constantly changing.³ The complexity of status determination demands great care in the selection of indices to status.

Probably the most widely known studies of class in America are those of Warner and his associates in which status groups are classified as

² Leonard Reissman, *Class in American Society* (Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1959), pp. 29-32.

³ John F. Cuber and William F. Kenkel, *Social Stratification in the U. S.* (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1954), p. 23.

upper upper class (not found in all communities) low upper upper middle lower middle upper lower and lower lower.⁴ Membership in these classes was judged on four indices: occupation, source of income, dwelling area, and house type. Hollingshead⁵ has developed a two-factor index to status with occupation and education having relative weights of seven and four. It is important to note that most researchers avoid *size of income* as an index to status. Lipset and Bendix⁶ comment:

Amount of income is not necessarily a good indicator of consumption status or style of life although it obviously sets the limit of a person's consumption. The way in which a man spends his income rather than the size of that income most often affects the social status he is accorded by others. The consumption standards of individuals will reflect their aspirations and reinforce or modify the prestige derived from their occupation alone.

Although class designations are widely used in studies comparing groups, the question of whether stratification results in a number of distinct classes or in a continuum where classes merge with one another has not been answered conclusively. There is a danger of over-emphasizing arbitrary classes which were used primarily as devices for analysis.

Implications of Status for Home Management

Despite the obvious imperfections of most attempts to analyze and compare status groups, the observed differences have significant implications for the ways in which families use all their resources and for the goals sought. Ordinarily an individual's use of resources will be greatly influenced by his own status group. However, since one of the characteristics of the American standard of living is that it is constantly upward moving,⁷ it is not surprising that many families consciously or unconsciously choose upward mobility as a goal. This often results in using the desired group rather than one's own group as a frame of reference in the use of resources. If the attempt to move upward is successful, the individual is accepted in the higher group; if not, he may have alienated himself from both groups. Lipset and Bendix question the common assumption that rapid and increasing mobility is desirable. They suggest

⁴ W. Lloyd Warner, Marcia Meeker, and Kenneth Fells, *Social Class in America* (Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1949), pp. 139-142.

⁵ August B. Hollingshead, *A Two Factor Index of Social Position* (New Haven: Hollingshead, 1957), 11 pp. (multithread).

⁶ Seymour Martin Lipset and Reinhard Bendix, *Social Mobility in Industrial Society* (Berkeley and Los Angeles: Institute of Industrial Relations, University of California Press, 1959), p. 273.

⁷ Hazel Kyrk, *Economic Problems of the Family* (New York: Harper and Row, 1933), p. 381.

that a high degree of upward social mobility *may* bear a cost that is high in terms of the combativeness frustration rootlessness and other ills that are engendered even if it be true that there has been no increase in the incidence of psychoses.⁸

LIVING PATTERNS

Although the conventional American standard of living as described by Kahl⁹ rings very true one would have to admit that it more accurately describes the middle-class American family than the lower or upper-class families. Kahl goes on to point out that while according to mythology almost every American lives this way:¹⁰

About three tenths of the total barely live adequately. They are likely to have a four or five room apartment in the heart of a city (or an old house on a small farm). Their furniture is plain and as old as the marriage for they cannot afford to keep up with the latest styles. Their food is nourishing but not elegant and is bought with a shrewd eye for bargain cuts of meat and cheap seasonable vegetables. In general their way of life is determined in large measure by the number of children they have. If only one son appears he might even be encouraged to go to college. If the house is full of children older ones will be allowed to quit high school to help bring in a little extra cash.

Bossard and Boll¹¹ describe more minutely the actual patterns of living for families in three class groups. They found in the lower-class no correlation between size of family and size of house. Bedrooms were shared and children slept in various rooms on cots and couches. Middle-class homes showed a definite correlation between the size of the family and that of the home. Parents had a private bedroom and all children slept in bedrooms sharing only with members of the same sex. All upper-class homes were large despite size of family. Parents sometimes had individual adjoining rooms and everyone in the family might have a separate bath. The family might have a summer home as well.

In the middle class schedules of family members involving school and business were much alike leading to detailed patterns in the use of the bathroom facilities. In the other two groups schedules did not coincide so closely.¹²

Dinner patterns varied widely for the three classes. In the lower class family members ate the meal prepared by the mother or sister whenever

⁸ *Op cit* p 285

⁹ See p 45

¹⁰ Joseph A. Kahl *The American Class Structure* (New York Holt Rinehart and Winston 1957) p 110

¹¹ James H. S. Bossard and Eleanor S. Boll *Ritual in Family Living* (Philadelphia University of Pennsylvania Press 1950) pp 105 134

¹² *Ibid* pp 109 111

they wished. Only Sunday dinner was eaten together. Middle-class dinners involved formal procedures with a set time for all family members present in assigned places with assigned duties. Upper class families dined later and more formally than the other groups. The dinner was served by servants and no member of the family would leave the table during the meal.¹³

In middle class homes regularized and cooperative plans for work about the home freed time for recreation often shared by family members. In upper class homes cooperative work was almost nonexistent and shared recreation was usually outside the home such as going to concerts. In lower class homes Saturday was housecleaning day and no time was devoted to family recreation as a group.

Two additional studies shed light on special areas of family living. Rees in a study of food practices of two socio-economic groups found upper class homemakers significantly more aware than lower-class homemakers of nutritional aspects¹⁴ and creativity in meal planning.¹⁵ Four indices to socio-economic level were used: education of homemaker, family income, prestige of the husband's occupation, and social participation. The differences noted above were most closely related to education. Higher status homemakers made significantly greater use of short cuts in meal preparation than did lower-class homemakers.¹⁶ This difference was most closely related to social participation although both income and education also showed a significant relationship. There were no significant differences between the two socio-economic groups in meal patterns used or in the rooms where meals were served. Two-thirds of the entire sample said all meals were served in the kitchen.¹⁷

Hurt¹⁸ reported that although ninth grade pupils improved in understanding of class learnings under all conditions they believed middle-class values and practices more useful to them in class units on *Making My Room and Home More Livable*, but found lower-class values and practices more applicable when studying *Helping with the Family Meals* and *Fun with My Family and Friends at Holiday Time*. This finding implies that in some areas of family living higher status patterns are more readily accepted than others.

¹³ *Ibid.*, pp. 116-117.

¹⁴ Jane L. Rees, *The Use and Meaning of Food in Families with Different Socio-Economic Backgrounds*. Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Pennsylvania State University, 1959, p. 23.

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 69.

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, Table 25, p. 51.

¹⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 71.

¹⁸ Mary Lee Hurt, *A Study of the Effect on Attitude Toward and Carry Over of Homemaking Education When Teaching Is Keyed to Lower and Middle Class Values and Practices*. Microfilmed Ph.D. dissertation, University of Illinois, 1953.

MANAGERIAL ATTITUDES AND PRACTICES

In division of responsibilities and roles of family members most authors agree that in lower class families more managerial activities are carried on by the mother than is true of the middle class mother¹⁹ However the democratic ideal of joint responsibility has gained most acceptance in the middle class²⁰ and middle-class homemakers spent significantly more time in supervision of workers than did the lower group in Van Bortel's study of two socio economic groups²¹

Olsen using a broad interpretation of the term division of responsibility for homemaking tasks to include physical work decision making and responsibility for doing a task or seeing that it is done reported the distribution among urban families classified according to status²² (See Table 7 1)

TABLE 7 1 Mean Distribution of Responsibilities within the Family by Status Levels

Person	Status Level		
	High	Middle	Low
	Per cent	Per cent	Per cent
Wife	50.7**	58.5*	61.0
Husband	32.3**	36.7**	31.9
Children	6.9*	3.6*	6.0
Outside	10.1**	1.2	1.1
Total per cent	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number	(62)	(92)	(77)

* P .05

** P .01

Source: Marvin E. Olsen, "Distribution of Family Responsibilities and Social Stratification," *Marriage and Family Living* Vol. 22 No. 3 (February 1960) Table I, p. 63

The trends apparent from these data are that the wife showed an inverse relationship between status and responsibility middle-class husbands carried more responsibility than did husbands in either the high

¹⁹ Robert J. Havighurst, "Social Class Differences and Family Life Education at the Secondary Level," *Marriage and Family Living* Vol. 12 (Fall 1950) pp. 133-6; Marvin E. Olsen, "Distribution of Family Responsibilities and Social Stratification," *Marriage and Family Living* Vol. 22 (February 1960) pp. 60-65; and Dorothy Greey Van Bortel and Irma H. Gross, *A Study of Home Management in Two Socio-Economic Groups*, *Michigan Agricultural Experiment Station Bulletin* 240 (1954)

²⁰ Olsen *op cit* p. III

²¹ Van Bortel *op cit* p. III

²² Olsen *op cit* Table I, p. 63

or low status groups and only upper class families gave some responsibility to outside help

There is less agreement on the role of children in the respective status groups. Havighurst reported that middle class children are a drain on family resources rather than contributors. Sex differences appeared in the lower class with the daughter contributing her time and energy to family needs but with the son called upon for no contribution even from his earnings.²³ Olsen too found middle-class children contributing less. However if the responsibilities per child were compared the original differences were considerably reduced. They were then high 55 per cent middle 23 per cent and low 25 per cent. He notes that none of the figures reflected cases in which children helped their parents but were not responsible for the tasks which could well be the situation in middle status families more oriented toward family cooperation.²⁴ Van Bortel found on the other hand that middle-class homemakers expected their children to do much more around the house than did the lower group.

In relation to finances Bossard stated that only the middle class when compared with upper and lower class families used the family council in budgeting.²⁵ Van Bortel found the largest number of financial decisions made by husband and wife jointly. In only three of the fifty-two cases were children included in the decision making. When financial planning was done by one spouse alone a significantly larger number of lower than middle class homemakers was responsible.²⁶ Furthermore in the lower class group the husband usually turned his pay envelope over to the wife who gave him a personal allowance. In the middle-class group it was the wife who had an allowance in one third of the cases the middle class homemaker did not know the financial status of the family.

Abington²⁷ found significantly more middle than lower class youth receiving an allowance and more lower than middle-class youth reported that they purchased clothing with their spending money.

Havighurst further pointed out that status groups differed in attitudes toward family living which are learned as children. He found lower-class families to be more loyal to their own families even to distant relatives than were middle-class people. The latter on the other hand showed

²³ Havighurst *op cit* pp 133-34

²⁴ Olsen *op cit* p 111

²⁵ Van Bortel *op cit* pp 29-30

²⁶ Bossard *op cit* pp 125-126

²⁷ Van Bortel *op cit* p 25

²⁸ Florence S. Abington, "Money Management: Experiences of a Selected Group of Louisiana Youth as Related to Subculture, Sex, Social Status and Age," Ph.D. dissertation, Florida State University, 1958, p. 52.

more loyalty to the community and its needs than did the lower-class families²⁹ Van Bortel corroborated this finding on community participation³⁰ Lower-class families will no doubt expect to help other members of the family in time of need by giving of their resources On the other hand middle-class families can on the basis of this analysis be expected to contribute more widely to such agencies as the Red Cross and Community Chest drives If they do not make great demands upon distant relatives for help neither do they contribute to them Thus their resources are largely available for the needs of the immediate family However Sussman³¹ found that middle class parents expected to stand by their children after marriage although help in the form of presents at appropriate times or in terms of an extra pair of hands was more acceptable than a stipend

Koos³² studied nearly 2 000 families to determine class differences in family reactions to crisis He found variations between status groups in what was considered a crisis the frequency of crises the length of time a family suffers from a crisis and sources of help in time of crisis

Crises imply tremendous demands upon resources and require many vital decisions While the crises are not listed the author's examples indicate that many of the crises were managerial Applying for relief accepted by lower-class families would be a crisis in most middle-class homes

As to relative frequency of crises³³

middle-class families have more crises per family than do those in our lower class families Since middle-class families have higher levels of aspiration and are under greater pressure to maintain these levels it may well follow that the middle class family is more sensitive to the frustrations of modern living than is its lower-class counterpart This is not to disregard differences among families but when matched for degree of adequacy the middle-class family's greater sensitivity is clearly seen

Koos summarizes the findings on variation in length of crisis³⁴

middle class families more often react more severely to crisis than do low-income families but they recover their earlier reaction patterns more readily and second they are more likely to come out of the crisis with some benefit to themselves the middle class family has far more to lose in the way of morale than does its counterpart in the low income group [but] it has much more

²⁹ Havighurst *op cit* p 154

³⁰ Van Bortel *op cit* p 33

³¹ Marvin B Sussman "Helping Patterns in the Middle Class Family" *American Sociological Review* Vol 18 (February 1953) pp 22-28

³² Earl L. Koos "Class Differences in Family Reactions to Crisis" *Marriage and Family Living* Vol 10 (Summer 1950)

³³ *Ibid* pp 77-78

³⁴ *Ibid* p 78

opportunity and much more with which to re-establish itself after the crisis is over

The major variation in meeting crises shown in this study was that more than one half of the lower-class families turned to outside help while only one in ten middle class families did so. Middle class families in particular fear failure and rather than admit their need for help they apparently try to muddle through.

One of the hypotheses of Van Bortel's study³⁵ suggests that the lower class homemaker expressed more satisfaction with the role of homemaker because she had more tangible evidence of her contribution than does the middle class homemaker. The lower class family cannot afford to replace her services. The lower-class group was much more positive in their attitudes toward their homemaking activities while the middle class group appeared apathetic in this regard. The middle class homemaker defined her function in terms of maintaining family relations; in fact she expressed anxiety for family relations. The data on values underlying the managerial practices of the two groups appear to verify this hypothesis.

In reply to the question "What does home management mean to you?" fifteen lower class compared to eight middle class homemakers mentioned budgeting or money management. Only one lower compared to ten middle class homemakers replied "keeping the family contented and calm." Thus the lower group appeared to stress the material resources of management more than the middle class group.

A major difference in the two groups of homemakers was shown by the findings in relation to fatigue.³⁶ The middle-class group referred frequently to the need for more rest in spite of the fact that they had a total daytime and night rest of over eight hours per day. Eight women of the middle class group compared with three from the lower-class group reported they seldom felt like getting up in the morning. From the data secured it appears that psychological rather than physiological factors were the explanation for these differences. Another difference between the two groups of particular importance to management is that about one fourth of the homemakers in the lower-class group (14) reported consciously planning for a period of one year or less while almost all of the middle-class homemakers planned for periods of ten years or more. The lower-class group showed less concern for the future than did the middle-class group. Eighteen of the former group reported they had no concerns for the future and half of this group had made no provision for old age.³⁷

³⁵ Van Bortel *op cit*

³⁶ *Ibid.* p. 40

³⁷ *Ibid.*, pp. 74-75

SIZE OF MONEY INCOME

Another factor in determining the use of resources is the size of the family's money income. Although size of income is not the basis for either standard of living or socio-economic status, it is closely related to both. A person does not often select a standard of living far beyond what his income can provide, and the amount of his income may be determined by those occupations typical of his socio-economic group.

Wide attention has been given in the past to size of income as it affects use of resources. It is particularly significant in this country since the American standard of living admittedly places much emphasis on material goods, most of which are purchased. In an early Michigan study²⁸ size of income was found to correlate with purchasing practices, with decisions as to when clothing and furnishings should be discarded, with the amount of paid help available to the homemaker, and with the presence of facilities and equipment in the home. While size of income affects the use of all resources, most of the information available stresses the effect of size upon the distribution of income among the various budget categories. For ease in use of this book, all data concerning patterns of use of income have been grouped in a later chapter.

Effect Upon Managerial Practices

Data from the early Michigan study were analyzed by comparing the homemakers' practices with a management yardstick. Thus a total score was found for each homemaker. A close relationship was found between the total scores and the scores for six individual parts. If a woman had a high total score, she was likely to have uniformly high scores in all parts of the yardstick.

Since amount of education was shown in this study to be closely related to size of income, it was necessary to separate these two factors. Among homemakers with children, when only those with a high school education were considered, there appeared to be a definite linkage between income and the homemaker's managerial score, especially in the low economic level (see Figure 7.1). In each of the six parts, with one exception, the low economic group, even with the same education, had the lowest score. However, the middle group had higher scores than the comfort group in half of the parts—household production, use of money, and incentives for home management. Possibly this was because homemakers in the middle economic group, with smaller money incomes, felt the need for

²⁸ Irma H. Gross and Evelyn A. Zwemer, *Management in Michigan Homes*, Mich Agr Exp Sta Bull 196, June 1944, pp. 51-52.

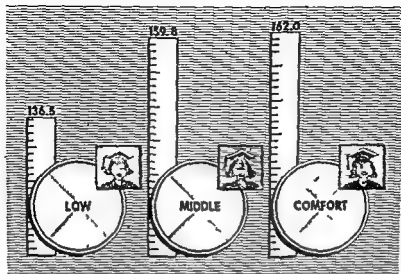


FIGURE 71 Management Scores of High School Graduates According to Economic Level

Adapted from Irma H. Gross, *Measuring Home Management*, Mich. Agr. Exp. Sta. Circular B-11, March 1948, p. 23.

making more things for their families and of handling their money more thoughtfully and carefully. They therefore gave more attention to management in general and so became more conscious of incentives for management.²⁹

SIZE AND COMPOSITION OF FAMILY

The meaning of the term *size of family* is obvious. *Composition* adds two other concepts—those of age and sex of members of the group. As with the other factors, size and composition of family will first be discussed in relation to the use of money. If a large family attempts to maintain the same level of consumption as a small family, it is clear that it will require more commodities and services. However, the rise in cost will not be proportionate. Some living costs vary quite directly with the size of the family, while others are in the nature of overhead costs and remain fairly uniform regardless of family size. Food, clothing, personal care, medical care, and movies are examples of the first group, while

²⁹Irma H. Gross, *Measuring Home Management*, Mich. Agr. Exp. Sta. Circ. Bull. 211, March 1948, pp. 24-25.

expenditures for equipment housing and home furnishings are less variable as size of family changes. Successive additions to the family [therefore] result in smaller and smaller additions to the cost. Although it is not true that two can live as cheaply as one, it is quite clear that it does not cost twice as much for two as for one.⁴⁰

Estimates based on 1959 data of difference in costs for one earner families of different sizes with husband 35-55 years of age are as given below.⁴¹ With cost for a 4 person family taken as 100, they are

Size of Family	Cost of Budget in Comparison with a Family of Four
2 persons	66
3 persons (including one child 6-16 years of age)	87
4 persons	100
5 persons (oldest child 6-16 years of age)	120

Effect Upon Resources Other Than Money

All time studies point to proportional increase of hours on household activities as size of family increases.⁴² Although the hours spent in various activities increase, the proportion of each activity to the total homemaking time varies only slightly. If one or more of the family members is an infant or a young child, an extra demand is placed upon the time of other family members.

In relation to the use of time, energy and other resources, the composition of the family assumes importance. If a large family is made up of able-bodied adolescents or adults, more human resources are available.

Effect Upon Quality of Management

In *Measuring Home Management*⁴³ where emphasis was placed not on how much time was spent in various activities but on the homemaker's overall management, Gross found no consistent connection between

⁴⁰ *Workers' Budgets in the United States: City Families and Single Persons, 1946 and 1947*. U. S. Dept. of Labor, Bur. of Labor Stat. Bull. 927, 1948, p. 49.

⁴¹ H. H. Lamale and M. S. Stoltz, "The Interim City Workers' Family Budget," *Monthly Labor Review*, Vol. 83, No. 8 (August 1960), pp. 788 and 790.

⁴² Marianne Muse, "Time Expenditures on Homemaking Activities in 183 Vermont Farm Homes," *Vt. Agr. Exp. Sta. Bull.* 530, June 1946, p. 61; M. L. Cowles and R. P. Dietz, "Time Spent in Homemaking Activities by a Selected Group of Wisconsin Homemakers," *Journal of Home Economics*, Vol. 48, No. 1 (January 1956), p. 31; E. Wiegand, "Use of Time by Full Time and Part Time Homemakers in Relation to Home Management," *Cornell Agr. Exp. Sta. Memoir* 330, 1954, pp. 17-18.

⁴³ Gross, *op. cit.* p. 16.

larger families and better management. Where a slight difference in total scores did appear, homemakers with larger families scored higher in the section devoted to planning for the future.

GAINFUL EMPLOYMENT OF THE HOMEMAKER

The gainful employment of married women has been on the increase in recent years and is expected to increase further. In 1890 2.5 per cent of married women worked; in 1909 30.9 per cent were in the labor force.⁴⁴ Study of this situation shows that several factors are associated with married women working.

Factors Associated With Employment

Income is an important one.

Most working wives are in families where the husband's earnings are neither very high nor very low, but where the addition of the wife's earnings enables the family to live in fairly comfortable circumstances.⁴⁵

In 1955 the median income of families in which the wife worked was about \$1,000 higher than that of all families and was over \$2,000 more than the income of families with nonworking wives.⁴⁶ However, many wives from middle- and upper-class families probably work for other reasons than economic necessity, such as achieving personal satisfaction.

A Bureau of Labor Statistics study based on 1900 data⁴⁷ investigated the relation between occurrence of the wife working and meeting the "needs" of the family without her money contribution. Needs were interpreted as ability to reach the standards set up in the City Worker's Family Budget of 1950. It was found that 42 per cent of families in which the wife worked were in need without her earnings, as compared with 32 per cent of families in which she did not work. Especially striking was the rate of full-year employment of mothers with oldest child between 6 and 16 years of age when the family "needed" the mother's earnings compared with the rate when the family did not need them. The former was nearly three times as high.

⁴⁴ *Women Power*, National Manpower Council (New York: Columbia University Press, 1947), p. 17; and J. Schuman, *Family Characteristics of Workers* (1947), *Monthly Labor Review*, Vol. 83, No. 8 (August 1960), p. 833.

⁴⁵ *Women Power*, op. cit., p. 3.

⁴⁶ *Fam. Income in the United States, 1955*, Current Population Reports, Consumer Income Series, U.S. Bureau of the Census, P. 60, No. 24, April 1957, p. 14.

⁴⁷ Margaret S. Carroll, "The Working Wife and Her Family's Economic Position," *Monthly Labor Review*, Vol. 83, No. 4 (April 1962), pp. 366-374.

The presence of young children in the family is a natural deterrent to a married woman's working. In 1959 18.4 per cent of wives aged 20 to 44 years with children under 5 years of age were employed as compared with 41.5 per cent of those with children 6-17 years of age and 61.8 per cent of those with no children under 18.⁴⁸

Race is a factor. Forty-four and eight tenths per cent of nonwhite married women worked in 1959 compared with 30.4 per cent of white.⁴⁹

Residence is another factor. The city woman is more apt to work than the farm homemaker (32.2 per cent of city wives 26.6 per cent of farm wives).⁵⁰

Education is positively associated with employment of married women. In all income groups the higher the level the greater the proportion of married women was employed (elementary education only 23.5 per cent 1-4 years high school 31.6 per cent some college 35.4 per cent).⁵¹

The trend is toward an increasing proportion of older women being employed. It is expected that 50 per cent of all women aged 45 to 54 years will be in the labor force by 1970.⁵²

Effects of Gainful Employment

The effect upon managerial practices and problems of the gainful employment of married women is our particular concern. Slowly facts rather than mere speculations are being accumulated on these points.

MONEY INCOME AND EXPENDITURES

Adding to family income is considered one of the major reasons for married women working. How much more money is truly gained in relation to what is earned? The job related expenditures⁵³ of 365 working wives in four small cities in Georgia are shown in Table 7.2. Increased income tax is not included. The proportion of money available for family use out of annual earnings slightly above \$2,000 was in no case less than half after job related expenditures were subtracted. The major variable in proportion available was the presence of small children which necessitated more expenditure for paid help. Without small children in the family the available proportion was slightly over 50 per cent.

⁴⁸ Schiffmann *op cit* Table 5 p. 831

⁴⁹ *Ibid.* Table 11 p. 834

⁵⁰ *Ibid.* Table 9 p. 833

⁵¹ *Ibid.* Table 11 p. 833

⁵² Anita Reichert, 'The Homemaker as Employed Worker', *Journal of Home Economics* Vol. 53 No. 1 (January 1961) p. 11

⁵³ Emma G. Holmes, 'Job Related Expenditures of Working Wives', 36th Annual National Agricultural Outlook Conference, November 1958, Washington, D.C.

TABLE 7.2 Job-Related Expenditures of Working Wives

	<i>All adult</i>	<i>Types of families</i>	
		<i>With children 6-17 only</i>	<i>With children under 6</i>
Wife's earnings	\$2 229	\$2 249	\$2 099
Job-related expenses	675	589	576
Remainder	1 554	1 660	1,523
Extra for paid help	69	187	326
Extra for clothing and personal care	134	75	105
Net available for family use	1 351	1 400	1 092

Emma G. Holmes, *Job-Related Expenditures of Working Wives: Sixth Annual National Agricultural Outlook Conference, November 1958, Washington, D.C.* p. 5

The use of money income in families with working wives is little known. In one study⁵⁴ there was little difference in saving practices between such families and those of nonworking wives. This study, however, did not include the purchase of durable goods as a form of saving. There is a general assumption that this type of saving is important in the families of working wives. An important item of income expenditure is food. Differences in food expenditure exist in the families of working wives as in other families. However, a 1955 nationwide food consumption survey indicated a greater expenditure of \$56 per person per week in such families as compared with families of similar incomes in which the wife was not employed.⁵⁵ It is reassuring to find in this study little difference in nutritional value in the diets of families of employed and nonemployed homemakers. Comparisons based on family income showed for groups below \$6,000 annual income no consistent differences in adequacy. City families with nonemployed homemakers fared slightly better nutritionally than those with employed homemakers, but the reverse was true for farm families.

TIME PATTERNS

The time patterns of employed married women show the expected longer working day with less time spent on household activities. In Wiegand's study the daily total⁵⁶ for employed homemakers was 11.5

⁵⁴ Carroll *op cit* p. 375

⁵⁵ *Food Consumption and Dietary Levels of Households as Related to Employment of Homemaker*, U.S. Dept. of Agriculture Report No. 15, 1955

⁵⁶ *Op cit* p. 11

hours compared with 11 hours for nonemployed city homemakers with 41 hours going to their homemaking compared with 74 hours given by the nonemployed homemakers. The detailed differences were as given in Table 7-3. There are similar findings in other studies. Anderson's working cooperators⁵⁷ spent 31 hours per week on homemaking activities or about 4½ hours per day. Dickens' cooperators⁵⁸ in the period of World War II averaged about 39 hours per week homemaking time for wives gainfully employed about 52 hours for the nonemployed.

TABLE 7-3 Use of Time for Homemaking Activities by Employed and Non-employed City Homemakers*

Activities	Hours	
	Employed homemakers	Non employed homemakers
Food preparation	12	16
Dishwashing	07	10
Care of the house	08	16
Care of clothes	08	16
Care of family members**	03	11
Marketing records	03	05
All homemaking	41	74

* E. W. and U. of Time by Full time and Part time Homemakers in Relation to Home Management. C. R. and Ag. Exp. Sta. Memoir 330 1954 T. N. 16 p. 16.
 ** 32 per cent of the nonemployed compared with 3 per cent of the employed homemakers had children under age 4.

HOMEMAKING PRACTICES

Although employed homemakers spend less time in household activities, there is little information available on specific differences in housekeeping practices. A Pennsylvania study in 1956 (59 employed homemakers, 237 full time homemakers) found

Housekeeping practices among these families were similar. Differences appeared to be associated with the family situation rather than with the outside employment of the wife. Employed homemakers did not use work simplification techniques to any greater extent than full time homemakers.⁵⁹

⁵⁷ E. S. Anderson and C. Fitzsimmons. Use of Time and Money by Employed Homemakers. *Journal of Home Economics* Vol. 32 No. 6 (June 1960) p. 453.

⁵⁸ D. Dickens. *Time Activities in Homemaking*. Miss Agr. Exp. Sta. Bull. 424 October 1945 Table 6.

⁵⁹ F. L. Nolan and D. H. Tuttle. *Certain Practices, Satisfactions and Difficulties in Families with Employed Homemakers*. Penn. Agr. Exp. Sta. Bull. 605 August 1959 p. 11.

However 41 per cent of the employed women in the study reported they had made some changes in method as to *time or speed* in homemaking practices⁶⁰ For example the employed women washed dishes after every meal less often than full-time homemakers and they were less apt to sew Most of them were city women and they dusted less often than city full-time homemakers (100 times per week compared with 160 times)⁶¹

One of the very important managerial arrangements that must be made by families with working mothers is that for the care of children The cost for such care in one study is suggested in Table 7.2 In a nationwide study⁶² kinds of arrangements for children under 17 were found to be

	(Cases)
At own home cared for by	
Father	807
Relative	1573
Nonrelative	394
At caretaker's home cared for by	
Relative	343
Nonrelative	410
Croup care	191
Self	401
Other	647
Total	5073

Necessary Adjustments

Adjustments within the family will need to be made if the homemaker uses a large part of her time and energy in gainful employment thus increasing the amount of money available but decreasing her time and energy available for homemaking tasks In addition adjustments made by the community as a whole can provide more resources for families in which the homemaker is gainfully employed Kent has stated factors which made for success in the family's adjustment to the homemaker's working outside the home⁶³

[Some of these factors] are more directly related to the family others to the community Those which seem most influential from the standpoint of the family itself are the managerial skill of the homemaker—her ability to organize the work of the home systematically her knowledge regarding the essential

⁶⁰ *Ibid.* p. 26

⁶¹ *Ibid.* Table 8 p. 11

⁶² H. C. Lajewski *Child Care Arrangements of Full-time Working Mothers* Children's Bureau Publication No. 378 U.S. Dept. of Health Education and Welfare 1959 Table II p. 15

⁶³ Druzilla C. Kent *Homemaking in the Defense Decades* *Journal of Home Economics* Vol. 31 No. 1 (January 1952) pp. 13-14

factors relating to the well being of the family—the values she considers important in making choices as to what to do or what to leave undone the flexibility of the family—the extent to which family members are willing to make essential adjustments their willingness to co-operate in the sharing of essential tasks the ability of the family to secure a competent substitute to carry the responsibilities formerly carried by the homemaker the kind of home in which the family lives—the extent to which it is (1) planned to eliminate the waste of time and energy and (2) equipped with modern labor saving equipment such as home freezer units automatic washers modern stoves and vacuum cleaners

Those factors relating to the community are the attitudes of the community toward women with homemaking responsibilities working outside of the home the attitudes of the community toward the division of responsibility within the family for tasks essential to their well being the willingness of the community to (1) make essential adjustments in the location and or operation of existing services and (2) create new services needed by those families such as child care centers and youth recreation centers the sensitivity of the community to the needs of these families and its aggressiveness in aiding them to solve problems which they cannot hope to solve as independent family units

LOCATION OF FAMILY

The location of a family within any community in relation to shopping areas schools place of husband's work and so forth will affect the homemaker's use of time energy and other resources The great mobility of American families is however lessening regional differences in use of resources but not yet eliminating these differences nor those due to size and type of location Families live either in urban areas in suburbs in open country or on farms The proportion of families living on farms has been decreasing steadily that in suburban areas has been increasing markedly

Urban Farm Differences

Although the median farm money income is lower than that of the city family (1959 farm \$2 800 urban \$5 755)⁶⁴ sharp differences in use of resources by these types of families are decreasing due to many factors including ease of transportation wide communication and lessening difference in size of money income Between 1941 and 1955 farm family spending increased proportionately more than that of urban families and was closer to urban spending than in the earlier period⁶⁵ Farm

⁶⁴ *Income of Families and Persons in the United States 1959* Current Population Reports Series P 60 No 35 January 5 1961 Table 1 p III

⁶⁵ M S Brew "Changes in Family Spending—the Overall Pattern *Farm Family Spending in the United States* Agr Research Service U S Dept of Agr Bull No 192 June 1958 p 1

families in the early period spent 30 per cent as much on family living as did urban families and in the later period probably spent nearly 50 per cent as much. The closest similarities in spending occurred in medical care and clothing and personal care.⁶⁶ The levels of living of farm and urban families are even closer together than these figures indicate because certain of the important needs of farm families are usually satisfied by direct income rather than by money income. This is true of housing and for the majority of farm families it is also true of food. Early studies⁶⁷ noted the greater proportion of farm money income that was saved compared with savings out of comparable urban money incomes.

A continuing difference between farm and city families is that farm homemakers devote time to farm work giving them a work day approximately one hour longer than the city woman's work day.⁶⁸ In the Cornell study with slight differences in the way the total homemaking time was used it was approximately the same length for each type of homemaker.⁶⁹

The farm homemaker does more household production than her city counterpart. In line with earlier reports a Pennsylvania study found a larger proportion of farm than city homemakers reporting preservation of food and sewing.⁷⁰ More farm homemakers reported baking.⁷¹

The effect of location upon the managerial process was investigated in an early Michigan study. While only slightly more village than farm women (74.9 per cent compared to 70.7 per cent) reported using work plans regularly the village women had a greater degree of success in carrying out their plans than did the farm women (79.8 per cent compared to 72.5 per cent). Interruptions were cited as an important factor in the success of work plans: the farm women's work plans were interrupted by the husbands' needs or requests twice as often as were the plans of the village women (25.0 per cent compared to 12.8 per cent).⁷²

Despite significant differences in size of income and use of money, time and labor saving facilities between urban and farm homes Gross found that in scoring the managerial practices of farm and village homemakers the total scores were within ten points of each other. The average farm homemaker scored slightly higher in household production than the village homemaker but the latter had slightly higher scores in the other areas considered.⁷³

⁶⁶ *Ibid.* Chart 3 p. 35.

⁶⁷ *How Families Use Their Incomes* U. S. Dept. of Agr. Misc. Pub. No. 653 Table 10 p. 55.

⁶⁸ Wiegand *op cit.* p. 33.

⁶⁹ See Tables 8.1 and 8.2 pp. 220 and 221.

⁷⁰ Nolan and Tuttle *op cit.* Table 9 p. 11.

⁷¹ *Farm Family Spending in the United States* Agri. Research Service U. S. Dept. of Agr. Bull. No. 192 June 1958 Chart 28.

⁷² Gross and Zwemer *op cit.* p. 11.

⁷³ Gross *op cit.* p. 11.

Suburban Differences

There is some evidence that families in suburban areas use their resources somewhat differently from city families. To begin with they are relatively young families. They have higher average incomes than those of city families in the same geographical area.⁷⁴ Whyte states that suburban living makes for an exchange of values because of the close almost enforced association of families.⁷⁵ There is an impulse toward culture and good taste in this exchange of values. From the next door living room a family hears and likes records of operas; then they begin to buy records of that type. Later as a great adventure they go to the opera when it comes to the nearby city. The slightly larger dollar expenditures for recreation, reading, and education⁷⁶ of suburban families compared with those of city families may be an indicator of this impulse. Other differences in dollar expenditures include more spent by suburban families on housing (except in the West) and considerably more on transportation.⁷⁷

SUMMARY

Seven factors which affect the ways in which individual families use their resources were listed in this chapter. Four are discussed in it; three in other chapters.

The factor of the socioeconomic group to which the family belongs is closely related to the standard of living. One's pattern of use of resources is usually similar to that of surrounding people. A number of recent studies illustrating differences in living patterns and management due to the effect of socioeconomic status were reviewed.

Size of income has long been recognized as a determining factor in the way all resources and money in particular are used.

Increase in size of family lowers the level of consumption in a way similar to decrease in money income. The resource of time is used increasingly for household activities in larger families, not only by the homemaker but by other members of the family as well.

Gainful employment of married women is a factor of increasing importance. Data available point to it as a source of additional money income for family use after additional expenses due to the homemaker's employ-

⁷⁴ *Study of Consumer Expenditures: Incomes and Savings*, Vol. I, Summary of Family Accounts, 1950, U. S. Bur. of Labor Statistics and Wharton School of Finance and Commerce (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, 1956), Table 1, p. 3.

⁷⁵ W. H. Whyte, Jr., *The Consumer in the New Suburbia*, *Consumer Behavior*, Vol. I, *The Dynamics of Consumer Reaction*, Lincoln H. Clark, Ed. (New York: New York University Press, 1955), p. 1.

⁷⁶ *Study of Consumer Expenditures*, op. cit., Vol. II, Table 1, p. 1.

⁷⁷ *Ibid.*

ment are taken into consideration. Employed homemakers have a longer working day than full time ones but give less work time to homemaking activities either daily or weekly.

Farm and city families are less different than formerly in money available for family use and even less different in the way money is expended. The same is true of the use of time by homemakers in the two groups.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

1. In your own community walk through two or three areas that represent contrasted socio-economic levels. Make out lists for each area of typical characteristics observed—for example size of home, curtaining of windows, type of lamp in the living room window.
2. Select one or two of the differences in socio-economic groups as determined by research. Explain the effect of these differences by illustrating how they might affect the use of time, energy, interests, abilities, community facilities and money.
3. How is home management influenced by the location of the home?
4. Describe two families who are as much alike as possible in the occupation of the breadwinner and the ages and level of education of the parents, but who differ in the size and composition of the family. What differences in the use of resources of these two families can be attributed to this factor?
5. Make a list of pros and cons for a young married woman who is trying to decide whether or not to take a full time paid job outside the home. Make these as specific to her situation as possible. What conscious changes would you suggest she make in her present practices if she decides to take the job? if she decides not to take the job?
6. If you are contemplating working after marriage, find out as much as you can about the costs which would be associated with the kind of work in which you are interested, both direct and indirect. How much do you think you will add to the real income of your family?

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- ANDERSON, Ella Smith and FITZSIMMONS, Cleo. Use of Time and Money by Employed Homemakers. *Journal of Home Economics* Vol. 32, No. 6 (June 1960) p. 453.
- BOSIARD, James H. S. and BOLL, Eleanor S. *Ritual in Family Living* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1950).
- CARROLL, Margaret S. The Working Wife and Her Family's Economic Position. *Monthly Labor Review* Vol. 85, No. 4 (April 1962) pp. 366-374.
- Current Population Reports: Income of Families and Persons in the United States*. U.S. Bureau of the Census, Series H-60, No. 35, January 5, 1961.

- CKINS Dorothy *Food Purchases and Use Practices of Families of Gainfully Employed Homemakers* Miss Agr Exp Sta Bull 620 1961
- WIGHURST Robert J. *Social Class Differences and Family Life Education at the Secondary Level* *Marriage and Family Living* Vol 12 (Fall 1950)
- DOLMES Emma G. *Job Related Expenditures of Working Wives* 36th Annual National Agricultural Outlook Conference Washington D C November 1958
- UHL Joseph A. *The American Class Structure* (New York Rinehart 1957)
- DOS Earl L. *Class Differences in Family Reactions to Crisis* *Marriage and Family Living* Vol 12 (Summer 1950)
- JEWSKI Henry C. *Child Care Arrangements of Full Time Working Mothers* Children's Bureau Publication No 378 U.S. Department of Health Education and Welfare 1959
- OLAN Francena L. and TUTTLE Dawn H. *Certain Practices Satisfactions and Difficulties in Families with Employed Homemakers* Penn Agr Exp Sta Bull 655 August 1959
- ULSEN Marvin E. *Distribution of Family Responsibilities and Social Stratification* *Marriage and Family Living* Vol 22 (February 1960) pp 60 65
- AINWATER Lee COLEMAN R. P. and HANDEL G. *Workingman's Wife Her Personality World and Life Style* (New York Oceana Publications Inc 1959)
- LEICHERT Anita. *The Homemaker as Employed Worker* *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 53 No 1 (January 1961) pp 18 22
- REISSMAN Leonard *Class in American Society* (Glencoe Illinois Free Press 1959)
- CHIFFMAN J. *Family Characteristics of Workers 1959* *Monthly Labor Review* Vol 83 No 8 (August 1960) pp 828 836
- RUSSMAN Marvin B. *Helping Patterns in the Middle Class Family* *American Sociological Review* Vol 18 (February 1953) pp 22 28
- VAN BORTEL Dorothy Greey and GROSS Irma H. *A Study of Home Management in Two Socio-Economic Classes* Mich Agr Exp Sta Tech Bull 240 1954
- WARNER Lloyd MEEKER Marcia and EBELS Kenneth *Social Class in America* (Chicago Science Research Associates 1949)
- WHYTE W. H. Jr. *The Consumer in Suburbia* *Consumer Behavior* Vol 1 *The Dynamics of Consumer Reaction* Lincoln H. Clark Ed (New York New York University Press 1955)
- Woman Power* National Manpower Council (New York Columbia University Press 1957)
- Work in the Lives of Married Women* National Manpower Council (New York Columbia University Press 1958)

PART TWO

*Management Applied to
Specific Resources*

8

Time

A difficulty in discussing the management of time stems from its inter relationship with energy. The two logically blend in work simplification where conservation of both is desired and usually achieved. There are however distinct differences in basic knowledge about the use of each and even in the goals underlying their use. The latter is particularly true in the later stages of the family life cycle when the time demands on an individual may have become so few that the problem is to fill time. Yet the supply of energy may have been reduced to the point where the demands upon it are very heavy for the individual.

Goals of time management are more often implied than defined. Management of time has concerned itself chiefly with minimizing work time and research in work simplification has had this as its chief purpose. Other research has been carried out to establish patterns of time usage. These are not necessarily desirable amounts of time to spend on given activities. They are rather the average amounts spent on them based on studies of a relatively large number of cases. Such patterns have been obtained in relation to size and composition of family, place of residence and other factors.

In this chapter specific information and techniques based on research where available will be applied to the management of time. We shall consider its philosophy, then patterns and trends in its use in the household, next turn to general helps in its management and conclude with a detailed discussion of the three steps in the management process as applied to this resource.

PHILOSOPHY

Nature of Time

Of the resources, time is one of the easiest to measure but one of the most difficult to understand. That it is a resource at all has even been questioned. Helen Canon of Cornell, an early critic of its status as a

resource once remarked it might be considered a measure for the duration of the use of energy. Its present independent right as a resource is however a matter of practical acceptance and usage. Warren¹ after considering pros and cons accepts it as a resource. Hall says "Time with us is handled much like a material: we earn it, spend it. Materials are resources."

Systems of time differ in various disciplines. Clock time, the only system of which most of us are aware, stems from the regular movements of the earth in relation to the sun. Today scientists are searching for a new, more accurate and more easily measured standard of time,² probably to be related to the number of cycles in the energy given off by some excited atom. The decision to seek this new definition of a unit of time was taken at the General Conference on Weights and Measures held in Paris in October, 1960.

Biological time or the cyclical occurrence of certain bodily symptoms has never been systemized as has sidereal time; nevertheless it has been noted in medical literature for centuries and Curt P. Richter⁴ affirms the existence of internal clocks within the body.

Psychological time to the lay person means awareness of the passage of time. Psychologists question the existence of such an inborn time sense but think that it is a kind of judgment developed through practice particularly in early life.⁵

Another aspect of psychological time is the sense of its passing slowly or quickly. That feeling comes in part from the quantity and importance of what is to be done in a certain amount of clock time. To a surgeon performing an emergency operation time will seem short; to someone spending a rainy day during a vacation outing time will seem long.

There are not only personal differences in awareness of time; there are also differences in different cultures. This point was touched on earlier in relation to different cultural values.⁶ America has been called a clock-centered society as contrasted for example with the Philippines where the person is more important than the hour.⁷ American emphasis on speed and punctuality comes from thinking of time as worth money.⁸

¹ Jean Warren "Time: Resource or Utility?" *Journal of Home Economics* Vol. 49 No. 1 (January 1957) pp. 20-22.

² Edward T. Hall *The Silent Language* (New York: Doubleday 1959) p. 29.

³ *The New York Times*, November 20, 1960, p. 44.

⁴ Curt P. Richter "Biological Clocks in Medicine and Psychiatry," *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* Vol. 46 (November 1960) pp. 1506-1530.

⁵ Herbert Woodrow "Time Perception," S. S. Stevens (Ed.) *Handbook of Experimental Psychology* (New York: Wiley 1951) p. 1235.

⁶ See p. 23.

⁷ Doreen B. Gamboa "What's the Hurry?" in "Children's Time," *Childhood Education* Vol. 30 (December 1953) p. 180.

⁸ Frances J. Woods *Cultural Values of American Ethnic Groups* (New York: Harper and Row 1956) pp. 104-5.

Attitudes Toward Time Management

Questions on the philosophy of time management begin with what is time? and proceed to attitudes toward its management. Does the person accept the absolute limitation of time? Is he willing to exercise control over this limited amount of time? Does he seek balance in the use of his time?

The attitude of some people toward the limitation of time is expressed by a psychiatrist. Dr. Paul Bousfeld. Dorothea Brande summarizes his views on this subject as follows:⁹

He holds that the sure sign of the incurable egotist is that he never allows for the actual amount of time any given activity will take. Firmly though unconsciously believing that the world revolves around him, certain of his magical power to arrest the progress of the sun and the moon, he goes through life astonished at the refractoriness of Time in not meeting him half way. He is always late to appointments, behind in his obligations, constantly assuming more work or accepting more invitations than he could keep if he were twins.

Other people accept the limitation of time. In general, this acceptance results in conscious decisions as to what activities shall be included. This type of philosophy was well expressed by a young woman who had changed quickly from a carefree girl into the very busy mother of two young children. One doesn't have a great deal of time to do all the things she would like to do, and so there begins a process of sorting out those things which a person wants to do most and letting the rest go till some future date when she hopes she will be able to do them.

Homemakers in particular may be reluctant to exercise conscious control of time. They are freer than employed persons to handle their time as they wish. Yet at the same time they are subject to more interruptions than are people in most occupations, especially during the preschool years of the children. After that period, the number decreases. A study of urban homemakers whose children were of school age showed a range of two to five interruptions per day, consuming a total of about one half hour of time.¹⁰

An additional reason for the homemaker's reluctance to manage time is that her work hours are spread out over a much longer span than the actual work period. Although according to a Bureau of Human Nutrition and Home Economics study, neither rural nor urban homemakers worked more than 8¾ hours daily, the working day (Sundays excepted) of the former started about 6:30 A.M. and closed at 8:00 P.M.—a stretch of

⁹ Dorothea Brande, *Wake Up and Live!* (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1936), p. 178.

¹⁰ Dorothy Greey Van Bortel and Irma H. Gross, *A Comparison of Home Management in Two Socio-Economic Groups*, Mich. Agr. Exp. Sta. Bull. 240, 1934.

13.5 hours.¹¹ The city woman's work day began at about 7.30 A.M. and closed about 8.30 P.M.—a stretch of 13 hours. Broken time spans are a source of irritation in themselves.¹²

It must also be admitted that it takes time to manage time. Yet Bruhn says:¹³

You may ask: How about the time it takes to do all this work? Am I justified in devoting so much attention to a system of this kind?

My answer to these questions is that your time is a commodity of which you are given a fixed amount each day with which to accomplish maximum results. If instead of time you were given a thousand dollars each morning of which to make the best use, would you not feel justified in planning rather carefully each expenditure and in investing a small sum to provide a record of just what use you were making of your fund?

To some persons time planning seems too formal an artifice for family living, too apt to interfere with spontaneity. Unquestionably there are occasions when a time plan should be thrown overboard if something more worthwhile than a routine job offers itself. Emily Blair has written:

there are occasions when to be on time for a meal means a serious sacrifice of a pleasure or an opportunity.¹⁴

Emily Dickinson has a gay little verse on the subject:

To make routine a stimulus
Remember it can cease—
Capacity to terminate
Is a specific Grace.¹⁵

Balance

Balance as a guide to the use of all resources has already been discussed.¹⁶ In regard to time it has three classic divisions: work, rest, and leisure, with some approval in the folkways of an equal division among the three. Balance for a homemaker means that there must be time for work, rest, and sleep, with sufficient leisure for some phases of living that will keep her emotionally stable and intellectually alert.

¹¹ *The Time Costs of Homemaking*. Bureau of Human Nutrition and Home Economics, U.S. Dept. of Agriculture, Bull. 944, July 1, 1944.

¹² J. K. Folsom, *The Family and Democratic Society* (New York: Wiley, 1943), p. 578.

¹³ Daniel Bloomfield, *The Modern Executive* (New York: Wilson, 1924), p. 257. Reprinted by permission of H. W. Wilson Company, publishers.

¹⁴ Emily V. Blair, *The Creation of a Home* (New York: Farrar and Rinehart, 1930), p. 230.

¹⁵ From *Poems by Emily Dickinson*, edited by Martha Dickinson Bianchi and Alfred Leece Hampson. Copyright 1914, 1942 by Martha Dickinson Bianchi, p. 37. By permission of Little, Brown and Company.

¹⁶ Pp. 144-146.

Because work is so important a part of the average person's day attitudes toward it affect balance. At least three different attitudes toward work may be distinguished. Some people have the feeling that work is a duty so important that its accomplishment must overbalance every thing else. A time plan based on this philosophy will revolve around work, other things fitted in as remaining time permits. Some people look upon work as a necessary evil and will plan to get it over as quickly as possible, either by doing less of it, by doing it less well, or by doing it more effectively. A third attitude is that of looking upon work as a creative experience. Not every job has equally creative possibilities, but some of the varieties of work done in an ordinary home may be very stimulating in themselves. A wise mother once advised an employed daughter who complained about her work to change her work as soon as possible. She said that anything which you do a third of each day ought to be interesting and satisfying in itself. Motivated by this philosophy, a person is not blindly hurrying away from work, but is deriving deep satisfactions from it as well as from other creative activities. One of the serious criticisms of work simplification in the home is that it emphasizes cutting down on work time and thus deemphasizes the savor of work done without emphasizing its time cost.

There is evidence of groping for balance in various studies of use of time by homemakers. In the Wiegand¹⁷ study of time the entire group of homemakers averaged for week days 9.2 hours or 38 per cent of their time on work, 8.4 hours or 35 per cent on sleeping and resting, and 6.4 hours or 27 per cent on all other activities.

Besides facing one's own philosophy of time management, knowledge of time patterns of various household activities is an aid in effective management. Other tools include the handling of peak loads, taking advantage of the implications of the work curve, and applying work simplification principles.

TIME PATTERNS AND COSTS

Research Findings

Time patterns in the household have been studied since the 1920's. These have been made through the cooperation of women who kept daily records of their time use. These studies agree in general on the rank order of time spent on groups of household activities and on the approximate time spent on each group. Also, total weekly times are

¹⁷ Elizabeth Wiegand, *Use of Time by Full Time and Part Time Homemakers in Relation to Home Management*, Cornell Agr. Exp. Sta. Memoir 330, July 1934, Table 12, p. 15.

fairly in accord ranging from 47 to 52 hours. In the 1950's two careful studies were published by Wiegand¹⁸ in New York state and Cowles¹⁹ in Wisconsin. Both studies verified in general the earlier findings and added to the detailed knowledge of time patterns.

General findings are that food activities take approximately twice as much time of the homemaker as any other group of activities, clearing away requiring roughly one third of the food time and preparing taking two-thirds. House care and the clothing and textile activities rank about alike in time demands upon the homemaker and are second in importance. The other two classes of activities, care of family and purchasing and management trail the first three groups. Either or both of them assume greater importance as food and to a lesser extent clothing activities absorb less time. Patterns from these later studies are given in Tables 8-1 and 8-2.

TABLE 8-1 Full time and Employed City Homemakers Use of Time for Homemaking on One Weekday
(102 full time, 53 employed, New York, 1952)

Homemaking activities	Type of homemaker			
	Full time		Employed	
	Hours	Per cent of of homemaking time	Hours	Per cent of of homemaking time
Food preparation	16	22	12	100
Dishwashing	10	15	07	17
Care of the house	16	22	08	20
Care of clothes	16	22	08	20
Care of family members	11	15	03	7
Marketing records	05	6	03	7
All homemaking	74	100	41	100

¹⁸ Elsie Wiegand, *Use of Time by Full-time and Part-time Homemakers in Relation to Home Management*, Cornell Agr. Exp. Sta. Memoir 330, July 1954, Table III, p. 18.

There is a striking similarity in the use of time by farm and city full-time homemakers except for the time spent on care of members and managerial activities in the Wiegand study. Cowles' findings on these two types of activities for farm women are like Wiegand's for city full-time homemakers.

¹⁸ *Ibid.*

¹⁹ May L. Cowles and Ruth E. Dietz, "Time Spent in Homemaking Activities by a Selected Group of Wisconsin Farm Homemakers," *Journal of Home Economics*, Vol. 48, No. 1 (January 1956), pp. 29-35.

TABLE 8.2 Patterns of Daily Use of Time for Homemaking of Farm Homemakers

	Wiegand*		Cowles**	
	Hours	Per cent of of homemak ing time	Hours	Per cent of of homemak ing time
Food preparation				
preservation and				
clearing away	30	40.0	28	37.3
Care of home	14	18.0	16	21.3
Care of clothes				
and laundry	17	22.0	15	20.0
Care of family	07	9.0	11	14.7
Marketing records				
management	08	11.0	05	6.7
All homemaking	76	100.0	75	100.0

From Elizabeth Wiegand, *Use of Time by Full-time and Part-time Homemakers*, *Report to Home Management Council, Agr. Exp. Sta. Memoir 330*, July 1934, Table 16, p. 16.
 From M. L. Cowles and R. H. P. Detsch, *Time Spent in Homemaking Activities by a Selected Group of Wisconsin Farm Homemakers*, *Journal of Home Economics*, Vol. 48, No. 1 (January 1956), Table 3, p. 32.

The total work day²⁰ of the employed city homemaker was 3.4 hours longer than that of the full-time city homemaker, thus:

	Homemaker	
Type of Work	Full-time (hours)	Employed (hours)
Homemaking	7.4	4.1
Other (including paid employment)	0.7	7.4
Total	8.1	11.5

The day of the employed woman showed 0.6 hours less sleep, 0.3 hours less time on personal care, and 2.3 hours less on community and other leisure activities. The employed homemaker spent less time on every one of her homemaking activities (See Table 8.1). The drastic reduction in time for care of family members stemmed from the relative infrequency of young children in the employed group.

The number of persons in the family shows the expected linkage with time used—the larger the number, the more time required for homemaking activities (See Table 8.3). The increase in time as size of family

²⁰ Wiegand, *op. cit.*, Table 12, p. 11.

TABLE 8-3 Number of Persons in Household and Time Used for Homemaking by Homemaker

Number in household (Persons)	Average time per day	
	Wiegand* (farm and city) (hours)	Cowles** (farm) (hours)
2	5.3	5.5
3	6.5	6.7
4	7.3	8.0
5	7.8	7.9
6	8.9***	8.5
7 or more	—	11.1

From Elizabeth Wiegand *Use of Time by Full-time and Part-time Homemakers in Relation to Home Management*, Cornell Agr. Exp. Sta. Memo. 330 July 1954 Table 18 p. 18.

From May L. Cowles and Ruth H. Dietz *Time Spent in Homemaking Activities by a Selected Group of Wisconsin Farm Homemakers*, *Journal of Home Economics* Vol. 48 No. 1 (January 1956) Table 2 p. 31.

*Includes 6 or more persons.

increases however was not consistent for all types of household activities according to the Cowles study. It was apparent particularly in food preparation and clearing away and in care of family but there were actual decreases in the homemaker's time spent on care of the house and sewing and mending in families of 7 or more (other members helped).

The age both of the homemaker and of family members was linked with time spent on homemaking activities.²¹ The older homemaker without children in the home used more time (5.5 hours) than the younger without children (4.4 hours). As age of children increased hours in homemaking activities decreased from 8.7 hours with youngest child under 4 to 5.7 hours with youngest child 10 to 17.

Trends in Patterns of Time Use in the Farm Household

Somewhat comparable studies of patterns of time use in farm households have been made at intervals of about 25 years and 15 years. These studies show marked similarities but also some changes in time patterns over the years.

There is a remarkable similarity²² in total time used for household activities—a range of only 7.6 hours to 8.1 hours per day in the major studies. There is also a similarity in increase in total hours as size of household increases.²³

²¹ Wiegand *op cit.*, Table 18 p. 18.

²² Cowles *op cit.* Table 1 p. 30; Wiegand *op cit.* Table 48 p. 57.

²³ Cowles *op cit.* p. 35.

There were however some increases and decreases. Of decreases in the Cornell studies²⁴ food preparation and cleaning fell slightly from 3.3 hours per day in 1936 to 3.0 hours in 1952 and care of house fell markedly from 2.7 hours to 1.4 hours the later change probably due to fewer wood and coal stoves and to better equipment. Increase came in time spent on purchasing and management (Cornell studies 1936 0.5 hours per day 1952 0.8 hours per day). The Wisconsin farm homemakers in 1953 used less time for food activities than was found in earlier studies of farm women and somewhat less time for sewing and mending.

Norms for Household Tasks

Few attempts have been made to establish norms or average times for specific household tasks such as bed making washing windows and so forth. A few scattered ones are known for example the norm for ironing a man's shirt by the best method seems to be about 6 minutes or less for making a bed 7.8 minutes. Whether or not established norms exist and are known to the homemaker who wishes to manage her time a knowledge of her own time costs is extremely important. Over a period of years a homemaker probably knows about how long it takes her to complete most of her various repetitive tasks. An inexperienced homemaker can quickly find out her norms by recording for a few days the amount of time she uses on each job. The averages of these individual records become her personal time norms.

Norms for Leisure Time

Some norms are available for leisure time activities of homemakers. These were touched upon earlier in the section on balance in the use of time. Leisure activities may be broadly interpreted as anything not classed as work or rest and in this interpretation include such uses of time as eating and dressing. They may also be more rigidly interpreted. There is evidence that even in the latter restricted sense leisure is a fairly important part of a homemaker's day. The Wiegand²⁵ study shows a daily average for full time homemakers of approximately 4 to 5 hours spent on community activities and other leisure.

Sorokin's study of use of time by 22 men and 81 women relief workers under the Works Progress Administration offers a breakdown of leisure activities separate from physiological and economic needs.²⁶ Some of his

²⁴ Wiegand *op cit* pp. 36-37.

²⁵ *Op cit* Table 12 p. 11.

²⁶ Pitirim A. Sorokin and C. A. Berger *Time Budgets of Human Behavior* (Cambridge: Harvard University 1939) p. 76.

terms of classification are self-evident. Others are used in specialized ways. Societal activities emphasize interaction with others and also performance of altruistic acts. Pleasurable activities are miscellaneous activities performed with or without others such as auto riding, taking part in physical sports, and idling. The pattern of time use is as follows:

Activity	Average Time Spent Daily Per Member of the Total Group	
	(hours)	(per cent)
Societal	1.35	27.2
Religious	14	2.8
Intellectual	1.41	28.4
Artistic	.41	8.2
Love and Courting	.15	3.0
Pleasurable	1.51	30.4
Total	4.97	100.0

The total of nearly five hours per day falls within the range given above for nonwork activities of homemakers.

Work Units

In studying patterns of use of time in order to establish time norms of household tasks, there has been some attempt made to go beyond mere statement of what activity is taking place. A pioneer effort to measure how much of the activity was accomplished in the time used for it was made in the late 30's by Jean Warren²⁷ in her development of work units and work loads. The purpose of the work unit was to enable the amount of time required in one household to be compared with that used in other households accomplishing the same quantities of the same tasks. It must be recognized that the work unit and work load resulted from quantitative analyses and neither in any way indicated the quality of the work accomplished nor the equipment used. A unit for qualitative as well as quantitative comparison of household activities would be a step further in providing norms for homemakers.

Through later research at Cornell carried on by Kathryn Walker²⁸ utilizing Wiegand's time study, six types of quantitative work units were developed. Although the concept is universally applicable, these units were evolved in New York state and may or may not be usable in differ-

²⁷ Jean Warren, *Use of Time in Its Relation to Home Management*, Cornell Univ. Agr. Exp. Sta. Bull. 754, 1940.

²⁸ Kathryn E. Walker, *Homemaking Work Units for New York State Household*, Cornell Univ. Agr. Exp. Sta. Memoir 353, December 1957.

ent geographical locations. They will also need revision from time to time as homemaking practices and conditions change.

Walker's definition of a work unit in homemaking is 'the amount of household work done in one hour under average conditions by an average worker'.²⁹ The work load is the sum of work units. Her six types of work units are: dishwashing (related to number of persons in the household); meal preparation (4 types of meals); physical care of children (related to age); washing clothes (by tubful); ironing clothes (by number of pieces); and regular weekly care of house (with and without children 18 years of age). Thus in setting up the units, important factors determined the number for each situation as shown in the example below of work units for care of household.

Task	Composition of household	Work units
Regular care of the house	All adult household	4.0 per week
(All daily and weekly tasks)	Household with children under 18 years of age	7.0 per week

TOOLS IN TIME MANAGEMENT

Peak Loads

A knowledge of norms aids in handling peak loads. For most people activities pile up on each other at certain times of the day, the week, the month, or the season. These packed periods are called peak loads. The wise manager of time will, if possible, level off peaks either by starting the piece of work early enough to avoid the last minute rush, or by completing other regular work in advance so that more time may be freed for special demands at the peak load. In some instances the peak load may be lessened by delegating some work to others. For the home maker, the time of breakfast and getting the family off for the day is a daily peak load; the thorough cleaning of the house a periodic peak load; the Christmas holidays a seasonal peak load.

The student's life is filled with peak loads that are the cumulation of tasks that must be performed at approximately the same time. Campus activities such as clubs, athletics, and campus publications require large units of time during special events. The demands of a sorority, among them rushing, pledging, initiation, visits of inspectors, and the social functions, make periodic inroads upon a member's time and energy. Every student is aware of the academic pressures that recur with unerring frequency: Periodic examinations, special term papers, and notebooks.

²⁹ *Ibid.* p. 3

and in some instances field trips are continually in the offing. Added to these familiar peak loads are the special demands of certain courses such as student teaching and home management residence. Sometimes these courses do not extend over an entire term or semester but may be concentrated in one portion of it resulting in a disproportionately heavy load for that period.

Work Curves

A tool for managing work time is the work curve—a device originated in industry to study changes in output of work over a period of time. When a worker is engaged in a task which is accomplished in identical units such as number of sheets ironed per hour, the quantity of those units produced in a given amount of time may be taken as an index of his accomplishment. It has been found that rate of production follows a somewhat typical form—typical of the work day and to a less extent of the work week. In industry production is nearly always low on Monday and at the end of the week. The end-of-the-week drop does not occur, however, in the case of workers who are learning a job or whose skill increases with practice. It also varies among nationality groups.

The form of various work curves will be presented below applying to workers in general. Curves, however, may vary for individuals because individuals have typical patterns of alertness throughout the day. These patterns are called diurnal rhythms.³⁰ There may be four types of diurnal rhythms: those of (a) workers who are most alert in the morning, slowing down in the late afternoon and early evening; (b) workers who reach their peak of alertness in the afternoon; and (c) and (d) workers who have two low periods, for example, one about noon and one late in the afternoon.

TYPICAL WORK CURVE

In its 18th annual report the Industrial Health Research Board of England gave findings describing the typical work curve as saddle backed—starting sluggishly with a sharp rise as the worker gets into his stride, falling off in the middle of the spell with a fresh spurt as the work nears its end, and a final falling off during the last hour.³¹

In analyzing a hypothetical work curve shown in Figure 81 with a lunch period, the preliminary increase *ab* signifies the warming up

³⁰ S. H. Bartley and Eloise Chute, *Fatigue and Impairment in Man* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1947), pp. 263-266.

³¹ "Forty-four Factors Affecting Efficiency," *Personnel Journal* (January 1939), pp. 2-11.

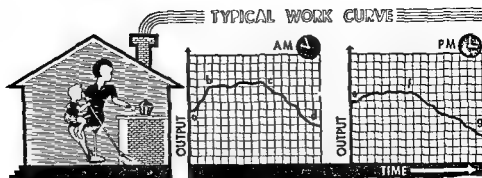


FIGURE 81 Typical Work Curve

Adapted from H. E. Burt, *Applied Psychology* (Eglewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, 1948)

period known as the WU. The letters *b c* indicate the plateau of greatest steady production. *c d* shows the first major drop in production. The beneficial effect of the lunch period rest is shown. Production starts out at a higher level after lunch than in the morning but never reaches as high a level as *b c* in the morning. *F g* shows the effect of accumulated fatigue at the end of the day. The worker may stop at *f* or continue until *g*. The drop from *c* to *d* is supposedly due to boredom developing during the job if the work is light. In heavy manual labor the final decrease will probably be very great and it is possible that output may fall to zero if work is continued to the point of exhaustion.

GOOD AND POOR WORK CURVES

The most desired work curve is one in which the WU is represented by a steep line showing that the worker got into the swing of work rapidly and achieved a high plateau of production. The longer the plateau before production decreases the greater the amount of work accomplished throughout the entire time. However, even though decrease in production sets in at the usual time, the actual plateau would be longer than in the typical curve owing to the more rapid WU.

Regardless of the speed with which the WU is accomplished, output increases during this period because muscle tissue becomes more efficient after some exercise. Carbon dioxide and lactic acid apparently act as stimulants when present in small quantities, although in large quantities they cause physiological fatigue and slow down work. Their effect during the WU is beneficial.

A poor WU may be represented as one of two types: (a) a long sloping

line which eventually reaches a high plateau or (b) a comparatively short line which ends in a low plateau of greatest production (see Figure 8 2) The former is likely to occur in the case of a worker whose mind is still engrossed with another task who is bored or who is emotionally upset (see Figure 8 2 A) The homemaker who is still trying to decide which refrigerator on the market best fits her needs may find that the dinner dishes have taken longer than usual since absorbed by her problem she unconsciously works more slowly A student emotionally upset because of a quarrel with her fiance may find it difficult to concentrate on her studies at first However as she gets into her work she finds it an effective way of forgetting the incident and she accomplishes a considerable quantity of good work

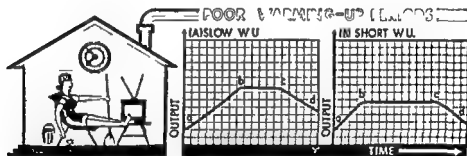


FIGURE 8 2 Poor Warming up Periods

The second type of undesirable WU ends in a low level of production (see Figure 8 2 B) It may be due to the fact that the worker has not yet developed sufficient skill in this particular task or that his energy is depleted because of previous activity The homemaker who has years of experience in making pies will reach greatest speed more quickly than the bride who is making the fifth or sixth pie in her experience Yet there are individual differences and two homemakers with like experience may vary greatly in their maximum speed and in the length of time they require to achieve that speed It is only natural to expect that the woman who has just finished turning the mattresses on four or five beds will take more time than usual to warm up in vacuuming floors and that she may not reach her usual level of performance In fact if she is physiologically fatigued to a high degree her best rate of production may occur at the start of the job and the WU may be nonexistent

A desirable WU is achieved when the worker is vitally interested in her work when she has thought herself into the job before actually

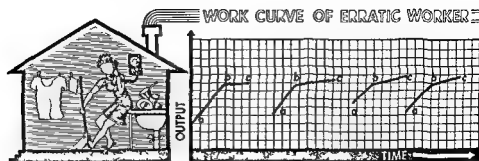


FIGURE 8-3 Work Curve of an Erratic Worker

production is very difficult to determine outside of industry where output is actually checked nor is it always possible to stop a job even if a person realizes he has slowed down. If however he senses the situation and has the choice of stopping it is worth doing.

Rest Periods

The favorable influence of the rest period on output of work is a matter of common observation. Fuller explanation of the rest period is reserved for the next chapter where its relation to fatigue will be developed. Suffice it here to cover the types, length and frequency of rest periods as related to maximizing work output. These vary with the nature of the work being done.

A rest period need not mean complete cessation from work although that is indicated after heavy manual labor. The greatest results can be expected if the worker lies down and relaxes completely because reclining requires less expenditure of energy than any other body position. The homemaker more easily than most workers can provide good conditions for rest. However if it is impossible to lie down complete relaxation in a sitting position will relieve fatigue. The completeness of relaxation during a rest period probably determines its success. People can be taught to relax. Tests show that a trained subject can pass from a state of tenseness to complete relaxation in a fifth of a second.²³ Alternating types of work may also serve as rest periods for each other. A sitting down job after a walking one or a mental task after one requiring physical exertion will prove restful.

²³ Edmund Jacobson, *You Must Relax* (New York: McGraw Hill, 1931), p. 158.

LENGTH AND FREQUENCY OF REST PERIODS

The length and frequency of rest periods are closely related. Rest pauses are usually placed in the middle of the morning and in the middle of the afternoon in industry and range in length from 5 to 15 minutes, the most frequent length being from 7 to 10 minutes.²⁴ A rest period should be inserted soon after output has reached its maximum and before a slump is expected. The pause should not be long enough so that an extended WU is required to bring production back to normal following the rest. When a single rest pause is used, the best time is early in the first drop in the saddle-back curve described above. That the length and frequency of rest pauses varies with the type of job is shown by the fact that in mental addition, best results were obtained when workers rested for 2 minutes out of 40. Workers on a light heavy job had the best output when they rested 16 per cent of the working time.²⁵ In the Taylor experiment to increase the efficiency of men loading very heavy pig iron, resting 57 per cent of the work time raised the daily amount carried to its highest point.²⁶

The rest period should not be too long delayed. Various laboratory experiments indicate the relationship of length of work period to length of rest period in muscle contraction of the fingers. To enable finger muscles to continue contraction it was found that after 15 contractions 30 seconds of rest were sufficient for recuperation, but after 30 contractions 120 seconds of rest were necessary.²⁷ Maggiora showed that after a doubled task, muscle requires not double but four times as long a rest for recuperation, and a similar need for more than proportionally increased rest after excessive work is true also of our organism in its totality.²⁸ In Figure 8-4, AB (the number of contractions) is twice as long as AB, BC (seconds of rest) is four times as long as BC.

APPLICATION TO THE HOMEMAKER

The optimal length and frequency of rest periods in relation to increases in production are more easily determined in industry than in the home for the homemaker does a variety of jobs in a single day and has no accurate record of output. Often it is difficult to convince the homemaker

²⁴ Ralph M. Barnes *Motion and Time Study* 2d ed. (New York: Wiley, 1940), p. 140.

²⁵ M. S. Viteles *Industrial Psychology* (New York: Norton, 1937), p. 480.

²⁶ F. W. Taylor *The Principles of Scientific Management* (New York: Harper and Row, 1911), p. 57.

²⁷ H. E. Burt *Applied Psychology* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, 1948), p. 576.

²⁸ Josephine Goldmark *Fatigue and Efficiency* (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1912), p. 88.

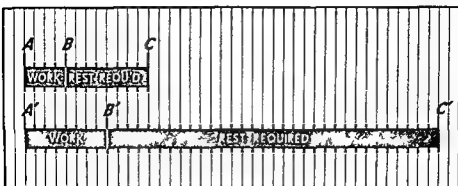


FIGURE 8-4 Ratio of Number of Contractions to Length of Rest Period Necessary for Recovery

Adapted from Josephine Goldmark, *Fatigue and Efficiency* (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1912), p. 88.

of the effectiveness of the rest period and here it must be remembered that the results are not always discernible. If in industry it has been proved that rest pauses "pay off" in dollars and cents, the homemaker should have no feeling of guilt or laziness when she lies down for a few minutes during the busy part of the day. The homemaker must determine for herself the frequency, length, and type of rest periods which she considers most desirable. She should recognize that a change of work may rest her if the present task is boring or if a particular set of muscles is tired. In the case of physiological fatigue she must realize that the longer the rest period is postponed, the longer it will take to recover. The homemaker whose work and personal life are not separated as are those of the factory worker cannot get away from her work completely. She must therefore learn to relax thoroughly during rest periods (see Figure 8-5). For many women a cool, dark, quiet place for complete rest is desirable.

The last tool of time management—that of applying principles of work simplification—will be discussed in detail in a later chapter. In a broad sense the lessons of the work curve are related to the principles of simplification involving sequence of work.

PROCESS OF MANAGING TIME

Planning

There are at least three types of time plans, different in degree of detail. The first is so simple a thing as a list of jobs, large and small, to



FIGURE 8-5 Body Position Favoring Complete Relaxation

Source: E. R. Gady, *Body Mechanics: Home-making & Task* (Kingston, R. I.: Colleg. of Home Economics, University of Rhode Island, 1934), p. 23.

be done as time is available and the spirit moves the planner to accomplish them. This cannot accurately be called a plan. A more detailed time plan, called a series-of-projects, includes a time sequence without definite time limits.³⁹ The third type, usually called a schedule, brings in both sequence and approximate amount of time on different activities. It is also far more detailed, often covers only work activities, and is either for short periods of time in toto or for definite activities over long periods.

In practice the series-of-projects type may be the model until a deadline approaches for one of the projects. For example, a busy homemaker is to give a report in November for the League of Women Voters. She has that on her mind along with making Christmas fruitcake and entertaining some new neighbors. It is actually first in importance in her series-of-projects. As November approaches, she realizes she must set aside definite times to work on the paper, and though she may not call it that, she is actually making a time schedule for that particular activity.

Few people object to time plans of this kind. It is the detailed planning of the entire day, which in the past has been considered the only type of time planning worthy of the name, that arouses resentment. Yet time scheduling is a device of special value to persons whose obligations leave them little free time. Such scheduling, by forcing her to take an

³⁹ J. K. Folsom, "Home Management and Self Management," *Journal of Home Economics*, Vol. 31 (1939), pp. 519-523.

overview of the entire day may be the only way in which the busy woman can insure for herself some semblance of balance in her daily living. Moreover, the device should procure some saving in time through elimination of indecision. Choices have been made, the sequence decided upon, and an estimate set down of time required for the doing. Work should be dispatched more readily under those conditions, and even emergencies may be met with less disturbance of the day's plans. Perhaps the most satisfying by-product of time scheduling is a feeling of control over the day's activities. This comes from assuming the role of manager and thus directing time and work instead of being submerged by a flood of disorganized, unrelated tasks.

A time plan cannot accomplish miracles. It must be pointed out that neither it nor a money budget nor any similar device is more than a technical aid in the wise management of a resource. A daily time schedule can be no more effective than are the concepts of management behind it. If careful consideration has been given to the relative values of disposition of time, it will be reflected in the daily schedule. If such consideration has not been given, the schedule may defeat its own purpose. Time schedules can never stretch the quantity of the resource being managed. In addition, although a flexible plan will simplify adjusting to them, no amount of planning will regulate interruptions. They occur because human contacts are more important to the time planner than is the carrying out of her plan to the letter. Some of them may be actual recreation to the isolated homemaker, such as a telephone call or a visit from a salesman.

A time plan to be workable must take into account personal needs, interests, and vagaries. If a homemaker likes to read in the middle of the morning and do her major cooking in the middle of the afternoon, that preference must show up in a workable schedule for her. The degree of detail must be suited to the experience and desires of the individual and should be kept to the minimum. For example, the college student certainly would not put down: 8:00-8:15 straighten closet; 8:15-8:30 dust room; 8:30-8:40 dust mop floor; 8:40-8:55 get vacuum and vacuum rugs; 8:55-9:00 rearrange furniture. Having done these tasks many times, she would probably say: 8:00-9:00 clean room. If certain jobs are disliked, they may be split up and done in small doses, regardless of the extra warming-up periods required. A busy mother who dislikes ironing prefers to iron half an hour every day rather than two and a half to three hours on one day of the week. A disliked though light job may be put early in the morning when by logic it should serve as a rest period after a heavy job—for example, cutting up vegetables before waxing and polishing the dining table top. The time plan should reflect the need of each

individual for some time by herself. The value of the homemaker for some association with outside people should be recognized.

STEPS IN MAKING TIME PLANS

A series-of-projects plan which is scarcely ever written down is so casual that only two steps in making it are necessary beyond selecting the projects. One is to think of them in a rough time sequence, the other in an order of importance. Sometimes importance dictates the order, sometimes time. For example, a woman plans to bake a pie for evening dinner and also to fix the hem of her daughter's dress. She may think to herself, "If I have time, I'll fix the dress (which in the long run is more important), but the blueberries for pie will be past their prime tomorrow—I'll make the pie first."

A time schedule requires more definite thought than a series of projects plan does. It consists of fairly definite steps:

- 1 List all items to be included, grouping under flexible and inflexible.
- 2 Set down as accurate an estimate for each as is obtainable.
- 3 Bring total estimated time needed and total available time into harmony.
- 4 Determine time sequence.
- 5 Write out plan.⁴⁰
- 6 If individual plans must mesh in with others, coordinate them.

In some cases there is only a fine line separating flexible from inflexible items. Obviously going to classes is an inflexible for a student, or feeding the baby is an inflexible for a homemaker, but dusting one's bedroom or living room approaches the variable. If the list of inflexibles is very long, one should try to see if any of this group can be shifted into the variables, or the fixed items will clash. The larger the proportion of variables, the more freedom of choice the individual has. In listing jobs, the less obvious ones like the homemaker's administrative work should be included.

It may be important to break down complicated tasks into parts. Not only are parts easier to grasp and to check on later, but they are easier to face psychologically speaking. A little verse expresses this:

Life by the yard
Is apt to be hard
Life by the inch
Is more of a cinch.

⁴⁰ Optional

Step two setting down of time estimates may be accomplished in one of two ways Either 1) the person uses her own time norms found through long experience or through keeping a few records on repetitive tasks or 2) she must estimate as best she can the time required for each part of her schedule Established norms would be of help at least in pointing up relatively heavy and light time costs of different activities ⁴¹

It is necessary to bring wishful thinking down to reality on time estimates The college student who has not started her term paper due day after tomorrow is deceiving herself if she expects to do as much reading for it in one day as she might have done in the preceding weeks The homemaker who takes two hours to clean a closet today should know that she cannot clean three closets in the same amount of time tomorrow

There are ways for the individual to establish valid estimates of the amount of time required for a particular activity Ahead of time the best one can do is to break a job down into its parts and make a time estimate on each part This may serve one of two purposes either to make sure that all parts are included or to reduce the tasks into easily grasped parts The student writing a term paper knows that she must 1) read and take notes 2) make an outline fitting her material into an organized whole 3) write a rough draft 4) polish the manuscript and 5) copy it The sum of these five estimates will be a more accurate figure than one estimate for the whole process Similarly the woman cleaning a closet estimates time for each separate part of the process 1) getting her cleaning materials and equipment 2) removing everything from the closet 3) cleaning airing or otherwise treating contents 4) cleaning the walls shelves and floor and 5) replacing contents and working materials The woman who expects to make a dress for a party this week end has a much better chance of success if she estimates how much time she can allow for cutting out the dress for assembling it for making fitting corrections for stitching and for doing the finishing such as hems and fastenings

The third step in making a time schedule bringing needs and wants into harmony is the same process as that applied to the more tangible resource—money

The fourth step determining the time sequence requires both listing jobs in order and determining logical times when they are to be done Suggestions for sequence are: build around the tasks that are fixed both as to necessity of performing them and/or clock time when they must be done alternate light and heavy jobs as far as possible include elasticity periods *without fail* An elasticity period is a block of unassigned time usually at the end of a morning or an afternoon during which one can

⁴¹ See p. 223

catch up on emergency demands or compensate for wrong estimates of time. A time saving device is cumulating or putting as many jobs as possible into simultaneous action (e.g. planning a club program under a hair dryer or baking apples and gingerbread while washing the breakfast dishes). Sequence of activities cannot be planned most effectively without taking into consideration rest periods and the warming up period. No activity should if avoidable be continued until production is low yet jobs should not be interrupted too soon—that is a fairly long stretch of time should be allotted to any activity.

Writing out the plan may or may not be the next step. The period planned for may be short enough and soon enough so that all the preceding steps may be accomplished while the plan can be remembered. Forms for writing out time plans vary from a separate card for a day with a few notations to a week's or even a month's plan on cross section paper.⁴²

The carrying out of the last step depends upon whether or not one is working alone. It is very ineffective to put down time for a committee meeting on Tuesday afternoon unless one knows that the other members can also attend at that time. In some stages of the family cycle more than in others a homemaker may need especially to coordinate her plans with those of other family members—for example as children grow up and develop their own interests.

Controlling the Plan in Action

Though much has been written on the techniques of making time schedules and forms have been suggested for writing them down little has been said about controlling time plans in action. Certain points included in the original time plan can be used as factors of control. This does not mean that if they are in the plan it will be carried out successfully; it simply means that they make certain types of control possible.

If the plan contains catch up periods its control is simpler than if it does not and the decisions made during the control period are less difficult. In fact one might go so far as to say that such flexible periods are necessary if the plan is to be successful. However even with flexibility of the original plan new decisions are usually called for during the carrying out of the plan.

A second factor in the time schedule which may determine the success of controlling the plan is the extent to which jobs were broken down before allotting time for them. These decisions would come in making

⁴² H. R. Goodyear and M. C. Kloth, *Managing for Effective Living* (New York: Wiley, 1954), pp. 51-59.

the plan but they are also helpful in the control step. For instance, if the homemaker referred to above found she needed three hours for cutting out her dress and her present plan allowed only two hours for this part of the dress making process, she at once must make conscious decisions as to how she can finish in the time allowed. If on the other hand she had in the plan simply jotted down "Work on dress," it would have been very difficult to check her progress.

After breaking tasks into parts which the individual can grasp, the next step in control is to check frequently enough so that the situation can be remedied if necessary. Only the person who likes to make a fetish of routine or who has so little to do that she feels no pressure of time will check her time schedule every hour, but it is wise to check two or three times a day. Perhaps before lunch one can stop to see if everything that was planned has been accomplished. Was anything accomplished which had not been planned? How important are the things which were not accomplished? Can they be postponed? Can some task planned for the afternoon be postponed and an unfinished one done in its stead? Must it be done in addition to all the items planned for this afternoon? Has anything unforeseen but needing attention occurred? How can it be fitted in? Such checks at noon and before dinner will certainly make necessary revisions of the plan clear before any serious errors have been made. The flexible period in the time plan—if not needed for "catching up"—is a good time for checking on one's progress. However, the more hurried one is, the more important it is to check and see if essentials are being taken care of and what can be eliminated.

There is no question but that people differ in their time sense or their ability to gauge the passage of time. The individual who has a good time sense has a valuable aid in controlling her use of time. Can such a time sense be developed? It may be impossible for everyone to reach a level of great accuracy, but without question most people can improve their time sense. Living in a home or on a campus which has a clock that chimes the quarter hours may make one conscious not only of the passage of time but also how much can be accomplished during a given period. Radio and television give notice of quarter and half hour blocks of time. After a while a person may be so accustomed to the indicators that she scarcely hears them, yet the consciousness of the passage of time remains. A simple way to become more conscious of time is to plan something to be done in a short period of time and then check to see how accurate the estimate was. For instance, plan to finish the letter you are writing in 15 minutes. (The content of the letter has already been determined and it is partly written.) If it takes longer than 15 minutes or if you have to eliminate some of the comments you had planned in order to

finish in the estimated time you have a basis for changing your conception of the amount which can be done in 15 minutes. In the present hurried life the person who does not own a watch must either have an excellent sense of time or depend upon others to forgive him for his lack of punctuality. However some people may not have developed a time sense because they have never consciously thought of this as a means of controlling their use of time.

There are other devices for the control of time plans. For the person who finds it difficult to keep a plan in mind a bulletin board in a convenient place may be an aid. The written plan is then constantly in view to keep one aware of it. An additional device is a time record used to check on balance in the use of time. For this use the record need not be planned ahead. It must however cover the entire 24 hour period with some classification of activities at least into the accepted three fold division of work, rest, and leisure.

Thus time plans can be controlled through breaking large jobs into parts which can be readily checked, checking frequently enough for changes to be effective, developing a time sense which makes fewer conscious checking periods necessary, and checking records of time to determine balance.

Controlling series of projects plans is a much more casual matter. Only as deadlines occur or relative importance shifts is there obvious need of controlling the plan in action. Probably the most common aspect of the second managerial step here is to get the project into action—that is to energize the plan. It is however necessary to check at intervals perhaps on a certain day of the week to see what has been accomplished thus far.

Evaluating

In evaluating the management of time as of other resources goals and values must be considered. As they vary so do the methods of evaluation.

If the goal is to secure balance in use of time, subjective questions such as the following are the chief devices of evaluation.

Do I secure enough sleep and rest to feel refreshed upon awakening?
Are nonwork activities including recreation present in desirable amounts and kinds?

If the goal is to accept the limitation of time, another group of questions occurs.

Am I willing to omit activities that are less important in order to accomplish those that are more important?

- e Why chosen?
 - d Did it show imagination?
 - e Did it show knowledge of local resources?
 - f How satisfying was it to you?
- 7 Study of effectiveness of time planning Make a time plan for three days Evaluate your planning using the adaptation of the Gantt chart shown on p 240
- a How well did you estimate your time? Did you allow too much? Too little? On what jobs?
 - b What proportion of your time did you stick to your plans? If the proportion was low how do you account for it?
- In what instances had you allowed insufficient time? How much more time was needed? If work was incomplete or omitted did you plan a time to do it later? In what instances had you allowed too much time? How was the extra time used? What per cent of accuracy would you say you had achieved in your planning? What have you learned from this experience?
- 8 Keeping to a rigid schedule for a short period of time Plan one two-hour period and keep rigidly to the schedule Choose a time when you are working by yourself so your experiment will not be affected by others Make the schedule partly according to your usual routine partly unlike it In following your plan the point is to turn from one activity to the next not at the *approximate* minute of your schedule but on the *exact* moment If you are only half way through the newspaper put it down If you are writing letters and have some time to spare write a postcard or two Answer the same questions as in Experience 7b
- 9 Establishing norms on a repetitive task Select a repetitive task such as making beds dusting the living room or washing lunch dishes and keep track for five days of the time you spend on the activity At the end of the five trials compute the average time spent How much did the time vary from day to day? If the task was relatively new to you as in a home management house situation did the time decrease from day to day? If possible compare your norms with those of someone else doing similar work
- 10 Check your own work curve in one of the following ways Record the amount of time for each unit of the activity chosen (one bed one window or one napkin) Using these data make a graph noting 1) the warm up period 2) the period of greatest productivity and 3) any change in output at the end
- a Making beds Make at least four beds of like size with a similar number and types of bedding
 - b Washing windows Wash at least six preferably more of similar size and shape
 - c Ironing similar pieces at least six of a kind (e.g. dinner napkins)

- d Preparing one of the following vegetables time at least four units separately (pounds or half pounds) 1) peas 2) lima beans 3) Frenched string beans or 4) sliced or diced carrots Use at least four pounds of peas or lima beans and at least two pounds of string beans or carrots
- e Typing a term paper of at least 10 pages In addition to charting a work curve count the number of errors in typing separately for each page Is there any pattern of errors—e.g. steady decrease steady increase increase followed by decrease or other pattern?
- 11 Effectiveness of lists of activities compared with definite plans for management of time
- a Many persons have the habit of listing things which they plan to do at some future time List ten things you would like to do when you have time At the end of a month check to see how many you have accomplished
- b Make a plan for peak loads which you anticipate during a busy period such as residence in a home management house or the Christmas season for a homemaker Check yourself at intervals to record progress using form below

Progress Report on Peak Loads

Activity	When Must Be Completed	What can Be Accomplished Ahead	When Work on	Achievement
Term paper in history	Nov 20	Reading completed Nov 1 Outline completed Nov 5 Rough draft finished Nov 15	Oct 15-30 3 5 P M Nov 1 5 3 5 P M Nov 8 (Saturday)	Half completed
Menus for managership	Oct. 19	Rough plans made Oct 12 Completed Oct 14	Oct 10 3 5 P M Oct 12 3 5 P M	Worked on Oct 11

- 12 Utilizing the warming up period
- a Clean three rooms treating each one as a unit that is dust use the dust mop and then the vacuum cleaner in one room before proceeding to the next Time the whole process from beginning in room one to finish in room three
- b On another day clean the same three rooms with the same degree of thoroughness This time dust everything in all three rooms first second use the dust mop in the entire area and third use the vacuum cleaner

throughout Time as in part a Compare times of a and b Did you enjoy one method more than the other?

- 13 Plan three dinner menus for guests that enable the hostess to do most of her preparation ahead of time so that she may be with her guests when they arrive and at the same time utilize the warming up period of the work curve
- 14 What parts of time management are really work simplification? What parts have little to do with work simplification?

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Bureau of Human Nutrition and Home Economics U.S. Dept. of Agriculture
The Time Costs of Homemaking Mimeo 944 July 1 1944
- Children's Times *Childhood Education* Vol 30 (December 1953)
- COWLES May L. and DIETZ Ruth P. "Time Spent in Homemaking Activities by a Selected Group of Wisconsin Farm Homemakers" *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 48 No 1 (January 1956) pp 29-35
- FOLSON Joseph H. "Time Management and Self Management" *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 31 (October 1939)
- GUTHRIE Frederick *Houses for Family Living* (New York Woman's Foundation 1948)
- HALL Edward T. *The Silent Language* (New York Doubleday 1959) Chapter 1 "The Voices of Time" Chapter 9 "Time Talks American Accents"
- KINDER Faye *Meal Management* Revised Edition (New York Macmillan 1962) Chapter 9 "Using Time Effectively"
- MUSE Marianne *Time Expenditures in Homemaking Activities in 183 Vermont Farm Homes* Vt Agr Exp Sta Bull 530 June 1946
- SOROKIN PIERRE and BERGER C. Q. *Time Budgets of Human Behavior* (Cambridge Harvard University 1939)
- STEIDL ROSE E. *Continuity of Household Work* Cornell Agr Exp Sta Memoir 383 1963
- VAN BORTSEL Dorothy Greey and GROSS Irma H. *A Comparison of Home Management in Two Socio-Economic Groups* Mich Agr Exp Sta Bull 240 1954
- WALKER Kathryn E. *Homemaking Work Units for New York State Households* Cornell Agr Exp Sta Memoir 353 1957
- WARREN Jean "Time Resource or Utility" *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 49 No 1 (January 1957) pp 20-22
- *Use of Time in Its Relation to Home Management* Cornell Univ Agr Exp Sta Bull 734 June 1940
- WIEGAND Elizabeth *Comparative Use of Time of Farm and City Full Time Homemakers and Homemakers in the Labor Force in Relation to Home Management* Cornell Agr Exp Sta Memoir 330 1954
- WOODROW Herbert "Time Perception" in S. S. Stevens (Ed.) *Handbook of Experimental Psychology* (New York Wiley 1951)

9

Energy and Allied Considerations

In home management energy has long been considered one of the chief resources with its conservation as the major objective. Bratton¹ points out that the term *energy* has been confused with the narrower concept of energy metabolism and that home economists have really been concerned with the body potential for activity the broader meaning of energy. Nevertheless in this chapter we shall adhere to the traditional though narrower meaning of the word energy as caloric expenditure.

Even in this narrower sense the objective of energy management is now seen to vary along with changing conditions. The traditional objective of conservation is still of great importance in failing health in the older years in the stage of the life cycle when there are great demands upon it² and under primitive work conditions. However where household work has been as highly mechanized as in the United States the reduction of energy output may contribute to unwanted obesity in many homemakers and conservation of energy may be neither necessary nor desirable.

Confusion has also arisen as to the interrelationship of energy output and fatigue. There is a misconception that all feelings of fatigue arise in proportion to amount of energy used without recognition that there are various types of fatigue.

In this chapter we shall look first at the energy costs of homemaking activities along with other physiological results of such bodily activity then explore the various types of fatigue and finally discuss the managerial process as applied to the resource of energy and closely related concepts.

Much of the material used comes from fields far distant from the home

¹ Esther C. Bratton, *Concepts of Energy and Work in Home Management*, *Journal of Home Economics* Vol. 31 No. 2 (February 1959) pp. 100-101.
See Figure 6-9 p. 162.



Courtesy of the Agricultural Research Service, U.S. Department of Agriculture

Kofianyi Apparatus for Determining Energy Expenditures by Indirect Method

the energy costs of four common household tasks: paring potatoes, wringing clothes, hanging clothes, and kneading (see Table 9.1). Her contribution was showing the difference in energy output when each task was performed with different body positions or with different equipment or with different heights of work surfaces.

LATER STUDIES OF BODY MOVEMENTS

Later research has concentrated even more definitely on specific body positions and movements rather than upon total tasks. Tasks are complicated combinations of movements varying from job to job and also

TABLE 91 Percentage Increase in Energy Cost While Performing Household Tasks Above Energy Expended During a State of Rest*

<i>Task</i>	<i>Average Percentage of Increase</i>
Paring potatoes	
When sitting in a chair	42.8
When standing	50.2
When sitting on an uncomfortable stool	54.1
Wringing clothes	
By hand	138.0
With a hand power wringer	197.0
With an electric wringer	99.0
Hanging clothes	
From a basket on the floor	184.0
From a basket on a table	118.0
Kneading	
At a medium height table	119.0
At a low table	133.0

Source: Von W. Swast, *Thermodynamic Cost of Certain Household Tasks*, Wash. Agr. Exp. St. R. 11, 282, 1933.

from worker to worker. There are however relatively few fundamental movements which make up these combinations. If the energy expenditures of parts of a task are added and compared with the findings of studying the task as a whole, the results are similar.⁷ The weight of the part or parts of the body used is a decisive factor in energy expenditure. The weights⁸ of parts of the body of a 165 pound man give data for prediction of energy cost when a particular part is used.

Each finger	2.1 ounces
Hand	1.1 pounds
Arm	
Forearm only	4.4 pounds
Whole arm	8.8 pounds
Trunk	110.0 pounds
Leg	
Thigh to the knee	8.8 pounds
Whole leg	15.5 pounds

⁷ M. Richardson and E. C. McCracken, *Energy Expenditures of Women Performing Selected Activities*, Home Economics Research Report No. 11, Agricultural Research Service, U. S. Dept. of Agr., December 1960, pp. 13-16.

⁸ F. E. Sauter, *Hausaufgaben machen Dir die Arbeit leicht* (München: R. Oldenbourg), p. 15.

Bratton⁹ studied eight elements of motions including three arm reaches to heights of 46 inches 56 inches and 72 inches two trunk bends to 22 inches and three inches from the floor a knee bend to three inches a step up of seven inches and a body pivot combined with an arm reach to 36 inches These elements of motions are particularly related to the activities of getting and putting away articles and hence have implications for storage space in a home Her findings were as indicated in Figure 9-1 As Barott and Langworthy and also

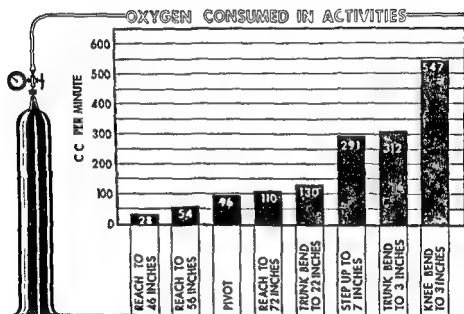


FIGURE 9-1 Oxygen Consumed Increase over Standing for Various Activities

Adapted from: Eath C. Bratton O. G. C. m. d. H. s. l. d. T. k. C. II Un
Agr. F. p. St. Bull. 873 August 1951 p. 12

Swartz found bending the body is more costly in energy than reaching up with the arms because of moving more of the body in so doing Bratton further found that energy consumed would be in proportion to height of reach and to depth of bend of a given type Between knee bend and trunk bend the energy costs are in favor of the latter However body strain is all in favor of the former Work done by McCracken and

⁹ Fisher C. Bratton *Oxygen Consumed in Household Tasks* Cornell Univ. Agr. Exp. Sta. Bull. 873 August 1951

Richardson¹⁰ furnishes similar information on energy costs of common body activities in performing work. A few of their general findings are given below.

<i>Body Activity</i>	<i>Energy Expenditure</i>
<i>Walking</i>	
Rate per minute	
108 steps compared with 96	Increase of 3.9 per cent
120 steps compared with 96	Increase of 12.9 per cent
Effect of speed in horizontal distance	
96 steps per min (2.2 miles per hr)	62.2 calories per mile
108 (2.6 miles per hr)	56.5
120 (2.9 miles per hr)	54.1
<i>Handling Loads</i>	
Moving an 18 pound load	
Carrying compared with pulling on a four wheeled cart	No significant difference
Placing and removing a 5 pound load	
On shelves 36" to 60" high	Increase if shelf was raised above or lowered below 36"
Comparison of sitting and standing positions	From sitting position Less for lower half heights More for higher shelf heights than from standing position

The greater expenditure of energy in walking slowly over a considerable distance as compared with walking more rapidly apparently resulted because the subjects took more steps at the slower rate.

CLASSIFICATION OF HOUSEHOLD TASKS

Attempts to classify household tasks according to energy costs depend upon the use of widely scattered research much of it not strictly com-

¹⁰ *Op cit* and E. C. McCracken and M. Richardson. Human Energy Expended in Using Built-in Ovens at Different Elevations. *Store and Appliance Builder* Vol. 21 No. 2 (1956) pp. 36-39. Human Energy Expenditures as Criteria for the Design of Household Storage Facilities. *Journal of Home Economics* Vol. 51 No. 3 (March 1959) pp. 198-206.

parable¹¹ There is not only confusion in units of measurement used as well as metabolic base chosen but there is frequently no uniformity in how the task was performed or with what equipment Attempts at classification into light moderate and heavy work are important for the incapacitated homemaker much less so for a well homemaker For the latter one value of classification is to judge whether or not she is using up enough energy to accumulate physiological fatigue There is fair agreement among the attempted rankings and classifications¹² except in the placing of ironing An English study considers it as heavy American studies as light There is general agreement that relatively few tasks are heavy scrubbing and waxing floors washing windows parts of washing clothes (depending upon equipment) lifting young children lifting heavy baskets of wet clothes The following common household tasks rank as light or moderate routine house care (except bed making) food preparation and sewing Bed making may be considered heavy One ranking of tasks is given in the Appendix p 549

Current Questions About Use of Energy in Household Tasks

Research in energy expenditure has opened to question some entrenched ideas such as the desirability of walking slowly and of sitting to work As noted above Richardson and McCracken substantiate the lower energy cost of separate slow steps in walking but not the total lowered energy cost of walking a considerable distance slowly Sitting to work in general is not the common choice of homemakers¹³ nor is it in all activities less expensive in energy output¹⁴ Its appropriateness depends among other factors upon whether or not the worker must frequently rise and move about and whether the worker must assume awkward positions to carry out a task while seated for example twisting the trunk to reach for something

More fundamentally the necessity of energy conservation in home

¹¹ E. C. Bratton *Some Factors of Cost to the Body in Standing to Work and Sitting to Work under Different Postural Conditions* Cornell Agr. Exp. Sta. Memoir 365 1959 p. 5

¹² E. E. Gordon M.D. *Energy Costs of Activities in Health and Diseases* *A.M.A. Archives of Internal Medicine* Vol. 101 (April 1958) pp. 709-710 Passmore and Durnin *Op. cit.* Table 9 p. 814 M. Skattebøl and K. A. Johnston *Energy Used in Household Activities* Washington Tuberculosis Association Seattle Washington

¹³ E. C. Bratton *Sitting to Work for Household Tasks* H.E.M. Research Report 4 NY State College of Home Economics April 1961 p. 16

¹⁴ McCracken and Richardson *Human Energy Expenditures as Criteria for the Design of Household Storage Facilities* p. 202 and Richardson and McCracken *Energy Expenditures of Women Performing Selected Activities While Sitting and Standing* *Journal of the American Medical Women's Association* Vol. 1 No. 11 (November 1961) pp. 861-86

making tasks has been challenged as basic to bodily well being Bratton¹⁵ in particular emphasizes comfort especially low angle of arm lift and avoidance of muscle strain as more important than energy expenditure

FATIGUE

Changed Concepts

Along with the revision of some concepts of use of energy have come changing ideas about fatigue It is no longer considered a unified thing but is classified into types That concepts of fatigue are in transition is present is evidenced by the following statement Most critical students are not prepared to accept any of the numerous definitions of fatigue proposed in the literature ¹⁶ There is a trend away from the energistic explanation of it—that is from the old idea that fatigue was the physiological effect of work done Laboratory studies showed the presence of certain chemicals especially lactic acid in the body after physical work was accomplished Therefore early enthusiasts not too closely connected with actual work situations

saw the problem as a very simple causal sequence—work fatigue remedy—enthusiasts whose statements seemed to imply the possibility of a single chemical discovery that might banish fatigue from industry There was indeed a suggestion that the administration of doses of acid sodium phosphate (to neutralize fatigue products) might achieve the desired end ¹⁷

Present knowledge shows that the problems of fatigue cannot be so easily solved

Types of Fatigue

An understanding of the types of fatigue—the physiological (some times called impairment) and the two varieties of nonphysiological or subjective fatigue namely boredom and frustration—is more essential for some homemakers in a practical sense than is the management of energy in itself Since energy output cannot be experienced directly home makers in general are really more concerned with their feelings of fatigue than they are with quantities of energy they are using The great exception to this statement is in the case of women limited in energy to use for necessary work who hence must consciously conserve it The factor

¹⁵ *Some Factors of Cost to the Body in Standing to Work and Sitting to Work under Different Postural Conditions* op cit pp 34-3

¹⁶ Adam Abruzzi *Work Measurement* (New York Columbia University 1952) p 251

¹⁷ Elton Mayo *The Human Problems of an Industrial Civilization* (New York Macmillan 1933) p 5

of health must always be recognized in relation both to use of energy and to feelings of fatigue. Work done in good health and the same tasks accomplished during illness are accompanied by entirely different feelings of fatigue and probably of energy output. Although the *feeling* of fatigue is similar regardless of type its causation and its avoidance or minimizing vary with type.

PHYSIOLOGICAL FATIGUE

Physiological fatigue was earlier recognized and has been studied more completely than has nonphysiological fatigue. Haggard and Greenberg define it as incapacity for exertion induced by previous exertion. This capacity is restored only by rest. They state: "Properly the use of the word is thus limited to the condition resulting from the activities of the vigorous manual worker and the athlete."¹⁸ Bartley and Chute prefer to call this type of fatigue *impairment*, reserving the word *fatigue* for what is called in this book nonphysiological or psychological fatigue.

Since the physiological type results in bodily changes which can be measured its occurrence can be objectively determined but only through laboratory methods. There is general agreement that physiological fatigue is due to the inability of the body fluids to maintain normal composition during the time when muscular activity is speeded up. When glucose is completely oxidized by the body the end products are carbon dioxide and water. This occurs when oxygen is supplied to the cells in quantities sufficient to carry the cleavage process through to completion. When insufficient oxygen is present the oxidation of the glucose will be incomplete, stopping at the lactic acid stage. Lactic acid is a well recognized accompaniment of this type of fatigue.

As indicated above¹⁹ few household activities use enough energy to cause this type of fatigue. Those few that do are not frequent or long continued except for lifting children. Even walking upstairs which requires far more energy than any household activity is not done for many minutes of a day.

PSYCHOLOGICAL FATIGUE

Psychological fatigue just as physiological results in a reduced output of work and aversion to work. It is very difficult to define or measure as it consists in rather vague subjective states. It is not localized in the body. Differences in fatigue feelings due to boredom and to frustration

¹⁸ H. W. Haggard and L. A. Greenberg, *Diet and Physical Efficiency* (New Haven: Yale University, 1935), p. 156.

¹⁹ See p. 23.

have yet to be clarified. Of the two psychological types, boredom fatigue was first recognized. Frustration fatigue, as due to different psychological causes, has emerged as a separate type.

Boredom Fatigue. In boredom fatigue there is discontent, yawning, restlessness and a desire to quit, but the actual capacity to do work is not changed. Wyatt and Langdon²⁰ found that those workers who were most frequently bored made the greatest number of complaints concerning working conditions. Thus it appears probable that boredom increases sensitivity to objectionable features connected with work, such as noise, atmospheric conditions, troublesome materials, and so forth. Another symptom of boredom consists in estimates of time at work. To the bored person, time seems to pass slowly. (See illustration on facing page.)

There is evidently much individual variation in susceptibility to boredom. In the English study²¹ over a fourth of a group of women factory workers experienced high degrees of boredom, and only 3 per cent never experienced it.

There are conflicting findings on the time when boredom is most common. Wyatt and Langdon reported a decrease in its occurrence the last hour of the work day²² but Nelson and Bartley²³ in their study of office workers found the most boring period to be the last hour of both morning and afternoon work periods. Both studies reported the occurrence of boredom in the first hour of work (experienced by 15-20 per cent of the workers in the latter study).

Frustration Fatigue. Although the two are both nonphysiological, frustration fatigue should not be confused with boredom fatigue.

Introduction reveals that a bored individual attributes his state to environmental events, whereas a fatigued individual lays the blame for his condition on himself. It is felt that merely escaping the situation will alleviate boredom, and that it is therefore more transient than fatigue.²⁴

Frustration fatigue may be regarded

as an experiential pattern arising in a conflict situation in which the general alignment of the individual may be described as aversion. This particular pattern

²⁰ S. Wyatt and J. N. Langdon, *Fatigue and Boredom in Repetitive Work* (London: Industrial Health Research Board, 1937), p. 79.

²¹ *Ibid.*, p. 81.

²² *Ibid.*, p. 79.

²³ T. M. Nelson and S. H. Bartley, *Fatigue, Boredom, and Relaxation in an Office Work Situation* (Unpublished manuscript).

²⁴ By permission from *Fatigue and Impairment in Man*, by S. Howard Bartley and Eloise Chute. Copyright 1947 McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., p. 111.



Soap Opera Forerunner

This nineteenth century Rube Goldberg device was designed to counteract the tedium of dishwashing. Courtesy of the Bettman Archive

involves feelings of limpness and bodily discomfort which 'besides being undesirable in themselves are frequently taken as tokens of inadequacy for activity'²³

These feelings of discomfort and aversion to work should not be considered as symptoms of fatigue but they are fatigue itself

[Frustration] *fatigue may be thought of as one form of attempt to retreat or escape from a situation that has become too difficult to contend with. It is both a warning that escape is indicated and a kind of enhanced discomfort when escape is not immediately possible. Conflict first arouses general tension. If it is*

²³ Ibid pp 47-48

prolonged fatigue nearly always follows. Since fatigue may arise from unresolved conflicts of all sorts it is clearly an over all state and must always be attributed to and considered in terms of *the person as a whole*.⁶

Medical authorities are recognizing frustration fatigue in homemaking.

In Denmark the opinion has also been stated from several quarters that some of the psychologic troubles found in housewives are due to their feeling relatively incompetent and that the best protection against this would be to train women better for housework and to contribute in every possible manner to obtaining greater estimation for housework.²⁷

In Great Britain in a survey of 194 housewives 79 per cent complained of tiredness anxiety and depression.²⁸

Statements on general fatigue strongly suggest frustration fatigue. Weaver described the most tiring household jobs as those that brought least appreciation to the homemaker in which she had least skill and/or which she knew least about.²⁹ All these job characteristics might cause disorganization in the worker. Hunter³⁰ reported similar linkages between fatigue and liking of work.

Tasks	Homemakers Reporting (per cent)		
	Causes greatest fatigue	Dreads most	Enjoys most
Cleaning	49	41	16 (Small jobs) 2 (Floors)
Ironing	28	32	3
Food preparation service and shopping	2	6	52

About half of the specific cleaning jobs reported to cause greatest fatigue were high in energy costs (scrubbing) the other half were not. Murray humorously distinguished between pleasant tired and mad tired mothers and gave as indications of the latter irritability feelings of interminable fatigue no sense of accomplishment and forgetfulness—again possible signs of personal disorganization.³¹

⁶ *Ibid.* p. 33

²⁷ Gerda Seidlin "Pathology and Hygiene of Housework" *Journal of American Medical Women's Assn.* Vol. 6 (1951) p. 15

²⁸ *Ibid.* p. 14

²⁹ Elaine E. Weaver talk given at School of Home Economics Michigan State College May 1959

³⁰ S. Hunter Discussion presented at National Home Management Workshop at Purdue University April 1960

³¹ Belle F. Murray talk given at Conference on Lay Leadership in Family Life Education Michigan State College June 9 1959



"Maybe you're just one of those people who never learned to relax."

Frustration fatigue may arise from the job itself—for example the inexperienced person whose first pie or first slipcover is something short of success may feel utterly fatigued. It may result from interruptions and clutter. It may arise from competition between what one is doing and what one would like to do—the college girl washing dishes in the home management house at the hour when the senior ball committee is meeting. It may arise from something entirely unrelated to whatever one is doing—the worry over military service of the fiancé or serious illness in the family may make simple dusting and picking up seem very fatiguing. The worker's feelings are projected onto the task in hand.

There is some evidence that fatigue having once been experienced in a given situation will tend to occur in a later similar situation. This existence of individual fatigue patterns was shown in a pilot study of fatigue of homemakers doing what each considered her weekly cleaning.³² When responses on fatigue during the two observations were shown graphically the surprising similarity of most of the pairs of patterns became evident (see Figure 9.2). For the bulk of working individuals however psychological like physiological fatigue increases as work continues and work output follows roughly the work curve.

In the area of home activities there is some research evidence as to the existence of frustration fatigue. In this same pilot study the women who reached great fatigue on the whole were less organized in their routines than were those who felt little or no fatigue.

An earlier study of management practices of farm and village homemakers showed a linkage between accomplishment of work and lack of fatigue.³³ Nonaccomplishment of work is frustrating. In Van Bortel's study³⁴ her middle-class women more than the lower-class women kept referring to the need for more rest in spite of the fact that their homemaking duties plus paid outside work averaged only 5¼ hours compared to 7¼ hours per day for the latter group. Van Bortel found more frustrations in the middle-class group.

Wiegand's study of *Fatigue of Homemakers with Young Children*³⁵ compared women who experienced much fatigue with those who experienced little. All cooperators had at least two young children below school age. Findings were obtained through interviews and through three-day records of the most tiring period of the day kept by the cooperators.

³² Irma H. Gross and S. Howard Bartley "Fatigue in House Care" *Journal of Applied Psychology* Vol. 35 (1951) pp. 205-207; also Irma H. Gross "Fatigue in Relation to House Care" *Journal of Home Economics* Vol. 42 (1950) pp. 794-796.

³³ Irma H. Gross and Evelyn A. Zwemer *Management in Michigan Homes* Michigan Agr. Exp. Sta. Tech. Bull. 196, 1944.

³⁴ Dorothy Greey Van Bortel and Irma H. Gross *Study of Home Management in Two Socio-Economic Classes* Mich. Agr. Exp. Sta. Bull. 240, 1954.

³⁵ E. Wiegand and Irma H. Gross *Fatigue of Homemakers with Young Children* Mich. Agr. Exp. Sta. Tech. Bull. 265, March 1958.

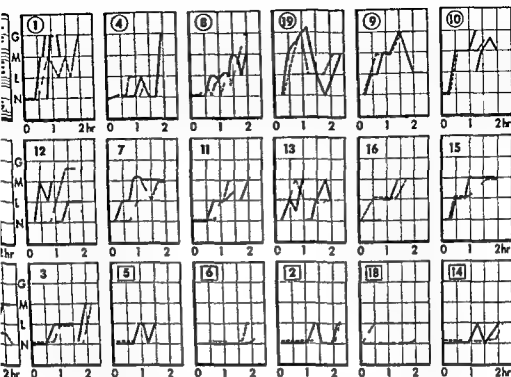


FIGURE 9-2. Development of Fatigue During Course of About a Two-Hour Cleaning Period on Two Occasions

Solid line first occasion wavy line second occasion Numbers on abscissa time in minutes Letters on ordinate degrees of fatigue (G=great M=moderate L=little N=no) Number in upper left corner indicates subject

From Irm H Gross and S Howard Bartley *Fatigue in House Care* *Jou of Appl d Psychol* Vol. 33 (1951) p. 206

Two of the findings pointed definitely to physiological fatigue over two-thirds of the more tired women compared with less than one third of the less tired ones had an infant toddler in the home and the first group tended to have somewhat less adequate and convenient housing arrangements for care of children. On the other hand there were several psychological factors of difference between the two groups pointing to frustration fatigue. Among them were the homemakers attitudes toward certain household tasks their feelings about unfinished tasks and the help or hindrance with work during the most tiring period. Although the differences were not statistically significant the favorable findings all pointed toward the less tired group thus ³⁶

³⁶ *Ibid* Tables 3 and 4 p. 15

<i>Factors of difference</i>	<i>Homemakers</i>		
	<i>Less tired</i>	<i>Intermediate</i>	<i>More tired</i>
	<i>(10 cases)</i> <i>Per cent</i>	<i>tiredness</i> <i>(57 cases)</i> <i>Per cent</i>	<i>(31 cases)</i> <i>Per cent</i>
High preference for			
Child care	90	75	67
Food preparation	60	42	42
Bothered by unfinished tasks	50	52	71
During most tiring period		—	
No unaccomplished tasks	63	50	45
Tasks considered satisfactorily performed	94	84	75
Help received	20	13	11
Hindrance experienced	8	12	16

Accident Rates and Fatigue

A high accident rate is considered valid evidence of fatigue of all types. Reduction in quality of a piece of work such as illogical organization of a paper or inaccurate analysis of a situation is a sign of fatigue as well as the accident rate. Most people recognize that they cannot do creative thinking as well when fatigued as when rested but do not always think of quality of work done as one indicator of fatigue. In a study of type-writing increase in errors was taken as an indication of fatigue although rate of production did not drop.²⁷

In a study by Imbert and Mestre reported by Webster 27 000 accidents among over 60 000 workmen were charted.²⁸ The results showed that for daytime work accidents increased progressively during the morning work hours and after abating somewhat following the midday rest they again became continuously more frequent. The maximum number of accidents for the last hour of the afternoon was notably higher than for the comparable period in the morning. Burrill quotes the following figures.²⁹

Accidents Per Year in One Industry

	<i>Morning</i>	<i>Afternoon</i>
First hour	150	111
Last hour	257	260

²⁷ A. R. E. Chapanis, W. R. Garner and C. T. Morgan *Applied Experimental Psychology* (New York: Wiley, 1949), p. 371.

²⁸ G. W. Webster "A Physiological Basis for the Shorter Working Day for Women," *Women's Bureau Bulletin*, No. 14 (1921).

²⁹ H. F. Burrill *Applied Psychology* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, 1949), p. 51.

Accidents increase as the number of hours of work increases Brozek reports that the number of accidents in a twelve hour work period was three times greater than the number in a ten hour day⁴⁰ Such increases are ascribed to increased fatigue Boredom appears to affect accident rates as well as the production curve for in one study on night shifts accidents were at a maximum at the beginning of the night and dwindled down fairly regularly till the early morning Although there is evidence that occurrence of accidents is due in part to a personal factor their number is still considered an indication of decreased quality of output

THE MANAGERIAL PROCESS APPLIED TO PROBLEMS OF ENERGY, BODILY DISCOMFORT, AND FATIGUE

Planning

The major decisions in planning to solve these problems are when to perform bodily work and how to perform it both to avoid bodily discomfort and fatigue and to minimize energy expenditure when desirable

The when is interwoven with time planning For example alternating light and heavy jobs including rest periods at strategic times and deciding what part of the day to use for certain tasks may be relatively unconscious devices for accomplishing these purposes Becoming aware of and taking advantage of one's diurnal rhythm⁴¹ might underlie the sequence of a time plan as might the placing of elasticity periods

Under special circumstances such as convalescence or physical incapacity a woman may develop a true energy plan on almost a quantitative basis The classification of tasks according to light medium and heavy and the energy cost of each given in the Appendix pp 549 550 provide building stones for such careful planning

Controlling the Plan in Action

Although the how leads into work simplification to be discussed in the next chapter the effective use of the body is of concern here

BODY MECHANICS

Among the important aspects of the control step and one of growing concern is that of body mechanics It is a term gradually replacing posture because it includes the body in motion as well as in standing and

⁴⁰ J. M. Brozek "Psychological Factors in Relation to Performance and Fatigue. *Proceedings of Federation of American Societies for Experimental Biology* Vol. 11 (1943) pp 154 144

⁴¹ See p. 226

sitting The word *mechanics* suggests a relationship to the functioning of the body ⁴² As was aptly stated by Esther Crew Bratton Your own body constitutes your most important item of household equipment It is well worth the effort it takes to acquire understanding of how the body functions in work and to develop skill in using the body effectively ⁴³ Nor is it a tool that will change in the foreseeable future

Body mechanics includes feelings of comfort and discomfort associated with use of muscles and skeleton Among its major principle are 1) keeping the body parts in alignment 2) using muscles effectively 3) rhythm 4) considering the center of gravity both of the body and of articles handled and 5) taking advantage of momentum These five aspects are interwoven in actual uses of the body

Keeping Body Parts Aligned Keeping the body parts in alignment results in stability when the various body weights are correctly positioned each centered over the base of support (see Figure 9-3) Consider the pull on back muscles necessary to maintain stability in Figure 9-4 (Poor) In correct posture whether standing sitting or using a tool muscles constructed to do certain things do them In incorrect posture muscles not so constructed must do the job ⁴⁴ When any part gets out of line muscular effort is required to maintain body balance in addition to whatever work the body is doing Strain may also result When there is a problem of maintaining balance a broader base of support is necessary The feet may be wide apart or parallel with one in advance of the other

The effects of poor body alignment were shown in Knowles' study of different heights of ironing boards ⁴⁵ Through an analysis of motion pictures giving a profile view of each individual subject measures were taken of changes in the angle of bend (the angle formed by the intersection of two lines—one reaching from the hairline of the forehead to the fullest projection of the hip the other from this projection to the ankle bone) Each subject chose a board height she preferred (34 or 35 inches as compared with the then standard height of 31 or 32 inches) The angle of bend when ironing at the standard height board increased from 18 to 149 per cent above that when the subjects ironed at their preferred heights The effect of posture upon other physiological processes was

⁴² Ethyl R. Grady *Illustrative Material for Correct Working Arrangements and Postural Practices in Homemaking Tasks* Master's thesis, Kansas State College 1950 P. 15

⁴³ Esther C. Bratton "Let Your Body Work for You" *The Kitchen Reporter* published by Kelvinator May 1951

⁴⁴ Dorothy Nye *Your Aches—What to Do About Them* (New York Funk 1940) P. 31

⁴⁵ Elaine Knowles, "Relation of Posture to Fatigue in Ironing" *Journal of Home Economics* Vol. 57 (1945) pp. 584-587

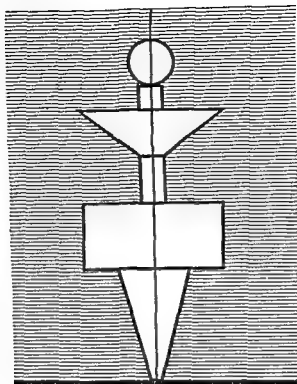


FIGURE 9-3 Alignment of Body Parts

Based on E. R. Grady *Illustrated Material for Correct Working of Aids to the Posture of the Home-making Tasks* Master's thesis Kansas State College 1930 p. 52

shown by increased blood pressure heart rate and other changes when the subject ironed at the standard rather than the preferred heights. Differences resulting from ironing at different heights were as follows:

<i>Factors Related to Body Alignment</i>	<i>Increase of Factors When Using 31 inch Board as Compared with 34 or 35 inch Board</i>
Force exerted on ironing board	4.48 per cent greater
Calorie requirements	14.32 per cent greater
Heart rate	28.90 per cent greater
Pulmonary ventilation	10.51 per cent greater
Blood pressure (pulse pressure)	2.21 per cent greater
Subjective complaints of weariness	
Number of times mentioned	Much increased
Definitely located pains	From 2 to 11 cases

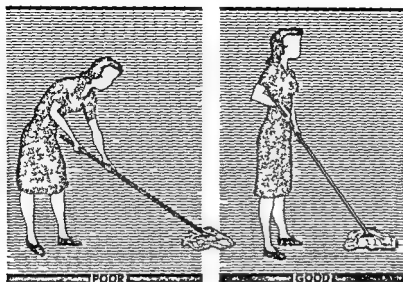


FIGURE 9-4 Back Bending is Back Breaking

Adapted from *Postural Health Extension Service*, U.S. Dept. of Agriculture
Washington, PA 126 1951

The importance of effects of posture on circulatory and neuromuscular systems is receiving increased attention ⁴⁴

Using Muscles Effectively Using muscles effectively includes employing the strongest muscle feasible setting the muscles that are to do the work before contacting the load contracting muscles slowly and using muscles rhythmically Leg muscles being stronger than back muscles should be used for lifting loads This is accomplished by standing or kneeling close to the load and lifting with a slow steady pull (see Figure 9 5)

Study of muscles used in performing work indicates that the smaller become fatigued more quickly than the larger though use of the smaller involves the expenditure of less total energy This greater fatigue is probably due to fixation Hence in household processes such as cutting and chopping the arm muscles should be used instead of those of the hand and wrist In polishing horizontal or any large surfaces the full arm and even trunk muscles may be used

Muscle exerts its greatest force when extended and force diminishes

⁴⁴E. C. Bratton "Some Factors of Cost to the Body in Standing or Sitting in Work and in Different Postural Conditions" *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 50 No 9 (November 1958) p 715

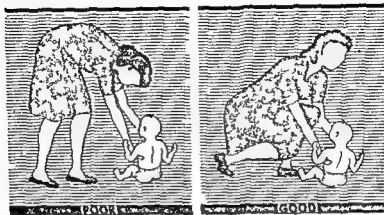


FIGURE 9-5 Substitute Leg Muscles for Back Muscles

Adapted from *Posture and Health Extension Service* U.S. Dept. of Agriculture
Washington, PA 186 1931

as the muscle shortens. Hence when lifting a heavy davenport the legs are slightly bent before grasping the load (see Figure 9-6). The cost of speed in movement has already been mentioned.⁴⁷

Rhythm Rhythm in muscular performance may be defined as the repetition of movements at the same tempo. The pleasure experienced in rhythmic movement in songs, dances, and other art forms has been appreciated since the early history of mankind. It is in the province of aesthetics to explain the association of rhythm and joy, but rhythm also has utilitarian uses.

The Gilbreths, who were keenly interested in rhythm as a fundamental part of motion study, advocated it as a door to fuller satisfaction in a job. They said its use in motion study was not new, but that it was shown as early as Assyrian and Babylonian times in pictorial records. The reason for its effectiveness is variously explained, thus:⁴⁸

All rhythm contains a repetition of movement without making a real repetition of the psychophysical impulse necessary. In the rhythmical activity a large part of the first excitement still serves for the second, and the second for the third. Inhibitions fall away, and the mere after effect of each stimulus secures a great saving for the new impulse.

⁴⁷ See pp. 252-253.

⁴⁸ Hugo Munsterberg, *Psychology and Industrial Efficiency* (Boston: Houghton, 1913), p. 162.

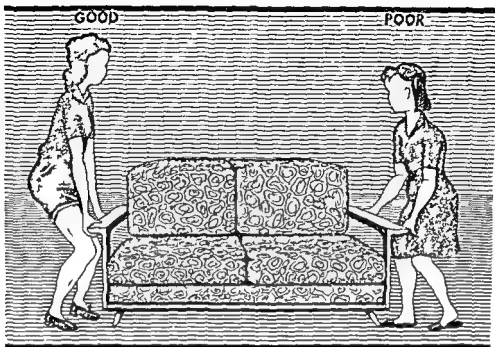


FIGURE 9-6 Stretched Muscle Exerts Greater Force

Based on E. R. Gady, *Body Mechanics in Homemaking Tasks* (Kingston, R.I. College of Home Economics University of Rhode Island 1954) p. 21

What is called the dynamogenic effect is a further explanation of the pleasure of rhythm in reducing energy costs

This simply means that one stimulus tends to reinforce response to a different stimulus. The vigor with which a group will march when a band is playing is a case in point.⁴⁸

Bratton explains why rhythmic work is less tiring than nonrhythmic as based on the existence of double sets of muscles for accomplishing work. When they work rhythmically one set rests while the other set works. In nonrhythmic work both sets may operate at once as in a clenched fist.⁴⁹

In the household many processes may be and probably are done rhythmically. For example in dishwashing when all the plates of one size are washed in sequence the hands and arms develop certain rhythmic movements in handling them. In polishing surfaces such as those of flat

⁴⁸ Burrill op cit p. 518

⁴⁹ "Let Your Body Work for You" op cit

silver table tops or doors definite rhythms may be developed. Sweeping, running the vacuum cleaner, ironing, flat work, all provide recognized possibilities for a regular flow of motions.

Considering the Center of Gravity Considering the center of gravity is of importance in lifting, supporting or carrying a load, and also in reaching to get an object. It is desirable to keep the load close to the body. Figure 9-5 illustrates this point as well as correct alignment. Note how much closer the baby is to the woman's body in the good as compared with the poor method of lifting. The custom of carrying the baby on the mother's back, as the Japanese do, is an example of keeping the load close to the body.

As far as possible, keep the center of the weight of the object through the center of the body, and avoid twisting the body. Applying force to the center of gravity of a load to be moved is economical of energy (see Figure 9-7).

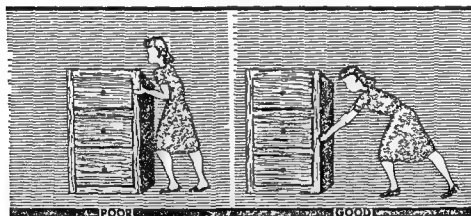


FIGURE 9-7 Use Whole Body at Center of Weight to be Moved

Adapted from *Posture - a How-ewerk Extension Service* U. S. Dept. of Agriculture
Washington, PA 186 1951

Taking Advantage of Momentum Taking advantage of momentum means the avoidance of stops and starts and of change of speeds. Free-flowing motions are the least fatiguing of movements because they are continued so that one motion flows smoothly into the next rather than stopping abruptly. The waving of a flag in the breeze may be given as an example. Thus in polishing or dusting a large surface the end of each movement may be rounded to make the return stroke a continuation of

the forward stroke. Bed covers may be tucked in with a long sweeping stroke avoiding abrupt strokes. Such motions are humorously described by a student earning his way through college doing janitor work. Less intelligent moppers who push the mop to the end of the stroke have to hang on to stop the thing before reversing its direction a terrific waste a waste of energy and breakfast or to use more scientific terminology of bacon and ergs.⁵¹

AVOIDANCE OF FATIGUE

Regardless of its type rest periods are of value both for increasing output and for alleviating fatigue. The kind of rest period should be related to the kind of fatigue to be most effective. The effectiveness of a rest period is related to the completeness of relaxation. Relaxation comes at different rates to different people and may never be complete.

Rest Periods To alleviate physiological fatigue there must be cessation of physical activity to allow time for the fatigue products to be removed from the body and in cases of great fatigue time for the store of glycogen to be replenished. Only in sleep can the body entirely eliminate physiological fatigue. Taylor's classic study of carrying pig iron in the early days of industrial work simplification illustrates the value of rest periods to increase output of work presumably by reducing physiological fatigue. In the study by increasing the number of rests at short intervals a worker increased his daily load of pig iron carried from 12½ to 47½ long tons. The lessening of fatigue is of course only implied. Since physiological fatigue produced is related to energy expended though the ratio is not one to one the substitution of machinery at different steps in a process where the relative expenditure of human energy is found to be high greatly reduces fatigue.

There is frequent confusion between local muscle discomfort and fatigue. Change of task will lessen this discomfort. Few of the rural home makers in a study on laundering objected to the standing involved during washing however standing is the major complaint in ironing. This is easily understood as standing is less tiring when there are interruptions such as walking to washer or tub. If workers are required to perform an exceedingly painstaking task for only a part of the day and are then shifted to work which requires much less concentration and the use of different muscles output is found to improve. The homemaker is responsible for a variety of tasks and may easily alternate types of work. Since energy expenditure is still occurring at a normal rate this type of rest

⁵¹ M. F. Young "On Mopping" *The University of Chicago Magazine* (May 1936) p. 6

period cannot be expected to eliminate much physical fatigue. This same type of rest period—that is, alternating types of activity—is satisfactory for both boredom and frustration fatigue. In the case of boredom, the value of the rest is apparently to take the mind off the uninteresting task.

Putting Interest into the Job In reducing boredom fatigue, it is wise to remember that small changes in the task may be helpful, or that interest outside the job may be introduced, such as listening to the radio. The individual homemaker can experiment and find the method most satisfying to her. Women's magazines have added much zest to home tasks by making homemakers conscious of what others are doing and how they are doing it. Mayo suggests that a job may be made more interesting by the simple device of setting intermediate goals which are attainable, thus avoiding the seeming endlessness of the job ahead.³² For instance, the woman who tries to complete the stacking and rinsing of the dishes in five minutes, who succeeds, and then sets another goal, feels a glow of accomplishment and a stimulus to speed more quickly than the person who hopes to complete the dishwashing in thirty minutes, but does not know until the end whether or not she has succeeded.

Another suggestion for making tasks more interesting is to work in groups. While one of the characteristics of the homemaker's work is her isolation, there are possibilities for having companionship while working if neighbors wish to cooperate. Furthermore, family members may find helping in home tasks more interesting if some of the jobs can be organized as group rather than as individual ones. Laundering can be more pleasant if one person carries the clothes to the line while another person prepares a fresh tubful for hanging. Though the companionship is interrupted, it still adds zest to the job as well as making good use of the WU. If Mary has a convenient arrangement for ironing in the kitchen while her mother prepares the meal, both tasks seem more pleasant. On the day fruit or vegetables are brought in for canning, if all family members can spend a short time preparing them, the work goes rapidly, for competition will arise and good-natured banter can make one forget the tediousness of the job.

An analytical approach to a job can, through changed procedure, actually reduce the physiological fatigue and at the same time create interest in the work itself. It is easy to see why children find certain tasks boring when they are given only the mechanical or manual portions of the job. For instance, young Jane will find dinner preparation more interesting if she is responsible for the entire dessert course than if she is

³² Mayo *op cit*, p. 33.

asked to mash the potatoes slice the bread pour the water and do numerous other routine jobs

Remedies for Frustration Fatigue With frustration fatigue the only genuine remedy is to seek out the underlying cause of frustration and if possible remove it. However the homemaker worrying over the fact that her husband is in a precarious occupation may find that once she accepts this fact the frustration will be lessened. As a matter of fact the mere recognition of the source of the trouble will disassociate the weariness and the work and an individual may then actually find his work a way of losing himself. One of the most frequently disturbing factors inside or outside the job is unsuccessful personal relations with others. In this regard one must remember that it is possible to increase one's proficiency in living and working with others. The rest period may be helpful at least temporarily in lessening frustration fatigue—as for example turning from the family account book which does not balance to take a walk to the store for groceries. Complete physical rest may be of great value in relieving tension.

Evaluation

There is a dearth of quantitative data for evaluating the use of energy and avoidance of any type of fatigue that is safe to accumulate. According to Gilbreth fatigue ought to be overcome within a 24 hour period. If it mounts too early in the working day it is considered something of a danger signal whatever its type. According to one writer a worker should not feel tired more than one fifth of the working day. Evaluation of management then will consist largely in subjective questions such as

What proportion of the day if any am I tired?

Am I rested when I awaken?

If I am fatigued

What kind of fatigue am I probably experiencing?

Do I know and use ways to overcome the different kinds of fatigue?

Do I use rest periods to avoid fatigue?

Can I relax more quickly and completely than I now do?

Do I push myself to continue a task regardless of fatigue?

On the other hand do I use slight feelings of fatigue as an excuse for stopping a task?

Am I wasteful of energy by working at an unduly high rate of speed?

Can I space heavy jobs better than I am doing?

Do I try to achieve correct posture in all work activities?

Can I work more effectively by improving my body motions?

Do I use large muscles where possible?

Do I use rhythmic and free flowing movements?

SUMMARY

The management of energy brings up problems different from the management of the more tangible and measureable resources of time money and materials. Study and research show that the avoidance of bodily discomfort and feelings of fatigue whether related or not to use of energy is of equal or greater importance than conservation of energy to homemakers in good health and is of considerable importance to all homemakers.

As understanding has increased, fatigue has been classified into physiological fatigue (sometimes called impairment) and psychological fatigue. The latter has been further subdivided into boredom fatigue and frustration fatigue.

Physiological fatigue can be controlled only by balancing rest and work, but research studies show there are relatively few tasks left in modern urban households that can cause much physiological fatigue. Rest is helpful to some extent in alleviating psychological fatigue, but the most valuable aid for boredom is, if possible, to put some interest into the job at hand. Frustration fatigue may yield to a variety of remedies, some as simple as recognizing it for what it is, others requiring much more fundamental treatment.

In applying the process of management to energy and allied considerations, there has been little attention given to the planning step except for physically handicapped women. Some phases of time planning such as alternating light and heavy jobs and introducing rest periods are applicable.

A growing interest in body mechanics, which includes posture and motions, will provide knowledge helpful for the control step in the management of energy and allied considerations.

Evaluation here, as with the resource of time, consists largely in questions which relate especially to fatigue feelings and body mechanics.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

1. What are the possibilities and limitations of applying the results of studies in industrial fatigue to a home situation?
2. Is it more difficult to manage accumulation of fatigue than to manage time? What are the reasons for your answer? What are some of the limitations the homemaker meets in her attempts to control fatigue? How may these in some extent be overcome?
3. Effectiveness of the rest period
 - a. After rest periods on three successive days determine approximately how long it takes you to relax. Did you relax completely? Were you able to

improve in relaxation? (Special references Edmund Jacobson *You Must Relax* Chapter 5 Cultivated Relaxation and Chapter 6 How to Relax Lying Down Mollie Smart I Discovered the Magic of Relaxation *Parents Magazine* Vol 28 (March 1955) pp 43 162

- For three successive days (not the same days as in part a) lie down at approximately the same time but for different periods of time (e.g. 15 minutes 30 minutes 1 hour) Immediately upon rising jot down your subjective reaction to rising ("Still tired" "ready to go" "lousy and sleepy but not tired" and so forth)

How long on each occasion did it take you to get going on your next project after resting? Did you change your plans as to what you would do upon rising?

4 Music as an aid in avoiding fatigue of the boredom type

a Analysis of unplanned usage

(1) In the past week have you turned the radio on for a musical program or played records while at work? What jobs were you carrying out? Do you consider them boring?

(2) In the past week have you been conscious of singing at work? Answer questions as in topic 1

b Conscious use of music. Select a job that is normally boring to you such as dusting or dishwashing. Perform it on three successive days as follows

(1) Perform without any music

(2) Turn on the radio or play records while doing the job

(3) Sing or hum or whistle while doing the job

Analyze your own sensations of satisfaction. Did the work seem to go more quickly one day than another? Did you have fewer feelings of fatigue? Did you enjoy the work more one day than another?

5 a Note the amount of sleep you have had for two successive nights.

- Then keep a record of your use of time for the next twenty four hour period. This use of time need not have been planned before starting the record. The record should be quite specific as to activities. For example indicate what classes are involved not just 1 00-2 00 class but 1 00-2 00 Biology Laboratory

c Star the times at which you felt tired and indicate whether the feelings of fatigue were mild moderate or strong

d Summarize

Were you tired an unduly large part of the 24 hours? Analyze each instance of fatigue. Was it primarily physiological fatigue or psychological? If the latter was it due to boredom or to frustration? Give specific suggestions for decreasing your fatigue

6 What constructive suggestions have you to give a specific middle class home maker whose attitude toward homemaking is typical of that described by Van Bortel (pp 198-260) and who frequently expresses a feeling of fatigue?

7 Analyze your own body mechanics for one day. Note such points as posture and rhythm. Compare your findings with those of others.

- 8 How may one's attitude toward his work produce fatigue? What kind of fatigue?
- 9 Compare types of fatigue experiences on different jobs in a home management residence course
- 10 Think of an example of fatigue you have experienced recently. Classify it as to type. Could you have prevented this experience?
- 11 Name an activity you can pursue for a long time and not feel tired. How do you account for this lack of fatigue?

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- BARTLEY S. Howard and CHUTE Elouise *Fatigue and Impairment in Man* (New York McGraw Hill 1947)
- BRATTON Esther C. Concepts of Energy and Work in Home Management *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 51 No 2 (February 1959) pp 102-104
- Let Your Body Work For You *Kitchen Reporter* (May 1951)
- Oxygen Consumed in Household Tasks *Cornell Univ Agr Exp Sta Bull* 875 1951
- *Sitting to Work for Household Tasks* HEM Research Report 4 Dept of Household Economics and Management NY State College of Home Economics April 1961
- Some Factors of Cost to the Body in Standing or Sitting to Work Under Different Postural Conditions *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 50 No 9 (November 1958) p 715 and *Cornell Agr Exp Sta Memoir* 365 1959
- DURNIN J V G A BLAKE Elaine C. and BROCKWAY J M The Energy Expenditure and Food Intake of Middle aged Glasgow Housewives and Their Adult Daughters *British Journal of Nutrition* Vol II No 1 (1957) p 85
- Extension Service US Dept of Agriculture *Posture in Housework* PA 186 (Washington DC 1951)
- GORDON E E Energy Costs of Activities in Health and Disease *A.M.A. Archives of Internal Medicine* Vol 101 (April 1958) pp 702-713
- GRADY Ethyl R *Body Mechanics in Homemaking Tasks* (Kingston R.I. College of Home Economics University of Rhode Island 1954)
- GROSS Irma H Fatigue in Relation to House Care *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 42 (December 1950)
- and BARTLEY S. Howard Fatigue in House Care *Journal of Applied Psychology* Vol 35 (June 1951)
- HARTSON L D "Analysis of Skilled Movements" *Personnel Journal* Vol 11 (June 1932-1933)
- KENNEDY Joseph A *Relax and Live* (Englewood Cliffs N.J. Prentice Hall 1953)
- KNOWLES Elaine Relation of Posture to Fatigue in Ironing *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 37 (November 1945)
- MCCRACKEN E C. and RICHARDSON M Human Energy Expenditures as Criteria for the Design of Household Storage Facilities *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 51 No 3 (March 1959) pp 198-206

- and ——— "Energy Expenditures of Women Performing Selected Activities While Sitting and Standing" *Journal of the American Medical Women's Association* Vol 1 No 11 (November 1961) pp 861-865
- METIENY Eleanor *Body Mechanics* (New York McGraw Hill 1952)
- NEILON T M and BARTLEY S H *Fatigue Boredom and Relaxation in an Office Work Situation* Unpublished manuscript
- PASSMORE P and DURNIN J V G A *Human Energy Expenditure* *Physiological Reviews* Vol 35 No 4 (October 1955) pp 801-840
- Planning for the Use of Up Time* (Seattle Washington Tuberculosis Association and State Division of Vocational Rehabilitation) Mimeographed
- RICHARDSON M and McCracken E C, *Energy Expenditures of Women Performing Selected Activities* Home Economics Research Report No 11 Agr Research Service US Dept of Agr December 1960
- ROON Karin *The New Way to Relax* (New York Greystone Press 1949)
- SEIDELIN Gerda M D *Pathology and Hygiene of Housework* *Journal of the American Medical Women's Association* Vol 6 (January 1951)
- SELF Ethel W and AGAN Tessie *Body Mechanics in Sorting the Laundry* *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 45 No 6 (June 1953) p 411
- SKATTEBAL Mary and JOHNSTON Kathleen A *Energy Used in Household Activities* (Seattle Washington Tuberculosis Association)
- SMART Mollie I *Discovered the Magic of Relaxation* *Parents Magazine* Vol 10 (March 1953)
- SWARTY Venona W *The Human Energy Cost of Certain Household Tasks* *Wash State Agr Exp Sta Bull* 282 1933
- TRAVELL Janet M D *Chairs Are a Personal Thing* *House Beautiful* Vol 97 (October 1955) pp 190-193 262 266 269
- WESSEL Janet A *Movement Fundamentals* (Englewood Cliffs N J Prentice Hall 1957)
- WIEGAND Elizabeth and GROSS Irma H *Fatigue of Homemakers with Young Children* *Mich Agr Exp Sta Tech Bull* 265 March 1958

100

● ● ●

4-22-66 4-22-66 4-22-66

[illegible]

War II the phrase *Work Simplification*¹ came into general use for the movement in all areas—factory farm and home

In the home the interest in work simplification stems from its effect on the homemaker and other family members. A well homemaker may wish to free work time for other activities or simply to fit work time available to required work. She may in other cases have a liberal supply of time but need to conserve her energy.

Importance for Physically Handicapped Women

The American Heart Association emphasizes work simplification for physically incapacitated women. It is estimated that ten million women in the United States have physical handicaps hidden as in heart disease or tuberculosis or visible as in the case of paralysis amputation and similar disabilities. These women need to conserve energy either because they have a limited amount or because motions considered easy by the average homemaker require much more effort for the handicapped. The United States Office of Vocational Rehabilitation recognizes homemaking as an occupation and thus will provide rehabilitation services to enable the handicapped homemaker to perform these activities. The American Heart Association and the Institute of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation directed by Dr. Howard Rusk and affiliated with New York University have done pioneer work in programs for rehabilitation of homemakers. Work simplification of household tasks is a fundamental part of this rehabilitation. The principles of work simplification are the same for handicapped and well women. Although handicapped homemakers have a special motivation to simplify work they are often more willing to accept an adaptation if it is one which might also be used by normal women. On the other hand well women seeing changes made because of a handicap may recognize that they could make use of the same idea.

In this chapter we will explain methods of research in work simplification especially informal ones give findings from certain research studies applicable to the home and then discuss classes of change in relation to home activities. The research findings are classified into the following groups: bedmaking, cleaning, laundering, food preparation, dishwashing and work and storage areas.

¹ It was coined by Allan Mogenson in 1934 or earlier.

² H. A. Rusk et al. *A Manual for Training the Disabled Homemaker*. Rehabilitation Monograph VIII, 2nd Edition (New York: Institute of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation, New York University Bellevue Medical Center, 1961). "Introduction."

Arousing Interest

It is estimated by experts in the industrial field that factory workers are only 50 to 70 per cent efficient. How efficient homemakers are no one would venture to guess but that they differ in that characteristic is well recognized. It is not difficult to observe variations in output of women preparing a church supper. It is also possible to observe useless operations among housewives—for example routine daily dusting whether or not dust is visible and polishing the bottoms of cooking vessels although dull surfaces are more saving of fuel. It is not an easy task to arouse interest in work simplification in the experienced home maker. As long as she is content with her daily activities and is able to complete her tasks without undue fatigue there is probably no reason to do so.

Sometimes however the interest of a young woman can be aroused by pointing out to her the importance of proper work habits later in her life when she is pressed for time or low in energy. In the years when she has the care of little children there will be neither time nor energy available to form new and more effective work habits.

It is the well woman who is overworked or the incapacitated woman who needs and accepts immediate relief. There is research evidence that the latter type accepts and uses work simplification. A small Michigan study of 50 incapacitated women who had attended work simplification classes five to seven years before the investigation reported continued use of what they had learned.³ Half or more of them had made changes in their work centers in their use of their bodies (especially in bending) and/or in the carrying out of some routine tasks.

It is helpful in arousing interest to show that work simplification can accomplish one or more of several purposes—it can reduce time on a given operation, it can cut down the number of motions and improve type of motions on a specific task, and it can reduce over all boredom resulting from long accustomed and routine habits of work. Further it may reduce frustration fatigue that has arisen because of lack of effectiveness on a job. Thus the woman who has accumulated psychological fatigue can find something for herself in work simplification. There are two ways of looking at housework, as something to get through with as quickly as possible to get on to something else, or as something to which conscious thought at least at times can be applied in working out new procedures.

³ Norma C. Landon, *A Study of Long Time Influences of Some Heart of the Home Classes in Michigan*. M. A. problem, Department of Home Management and Child Development, Michigan State University, 1929.

A study of college home economics students⁴ showed them to be relatively unaware of this conscious thinking leading to invention. The creative possibilities of work simplification may need to be spelled out but they are there. The ineffective worker performs activities in motion wasting ways which seem easy because they are habitual; the effective worker performs skilfully in accustomed ways; the creative worker thinks of new ways that are still more effective than the old.

This problem of arousing interest stems from the difficulty in and necessary time for breaking old habits and establishing new ones essential in adopting work simplification. Not only is habit breaking difficult and time-consuming but a preliminary mind set must also be changed. All suggested change is implied criticism. Intellectual interest in the new method must be stimulated and the advantage to the individual must be made clear. To illustrate the greater time necessary for a new habit involving fewer motions than an old one with more motions, a person has only to time the writing of every other letter in his own name compared with writing out his name in full. It is to be expected that the rate of change from any old to any new method will temporarily slow down output. In short, one has to accept the disadvantages of a learning period. The rate of change will of course vary with different people. Some will change slowly either because they are lacking in ability or because they have less need or incentive for improvement.

METHODS OF AWAKENING INTEREST

Two general methods of arousing interest in work simplification among homemakers are through films and, through occasional articles on the subject in popular periodicals. Pertinent films available at low cost or free are listed in the Appendix. They have the strong appeal of letting women actually see for themselves what improved methods of work will accomplish. Popular articles and leaflets while less vivid as teaching devices than films lend support to the general application and importance of work simplification.⁵

A method applicable to women assembled in groups as at club meetings is to demonstrate a simple task—for example, dusting a chair or polishing silver or making a cornstarch pudding. Then the entire group can be set to work individually or collectively on ways of improving the

⁴ Carol Belval, *Devices to Test Understanding and Use of Work Simplification in Homemaking Activities*, M. A. thesis, Ohio State University, 1956.

⁵ See "Easier Housekeeping," *Life*, Vol. XVI (September 9, 1946), pp. 97-107; Charlotte Paul, "Housework Made Easier," *Coronet*, Vol. XX (September 1946), pp. 49-52; *Kitchen Sense*, The Equitable Life Assurance Society of the United States, 393 Seventh Ave., New York 1, New York, 1936; *A House II to Live In*, Claire Slote, Ed., Bissell Home Service Institute, Grand Rapids 2, Mich.

demonstrated method. The original method should not be so poor as to be a caricature but should contain some obvious points that could be improved. The women may thus be stimulated to try out improving some other simple tasks in their own homes and hence in Mrs Gilbreth's telling phrase become motion minded. Probably the most concrete incentive to offer to a woman for the adoption of work simplification is the evidence of actual reduction in time required for certain tasks as found in research studies. Muse reduced the time for meal preparation and cleanup from 3 hours 46 minutes to 2 hours 5 minutes. Heiner and Vedder reduced dishwashing time from 38 minutes 8 seconds to 22 minutes 58 seconds. Cross and Everett reduced the time of cleaning spinach by 20 per cent and of washing a painted door by 10 per cent.

RESEARCH IN WORK SIMPLIFICATION

Techniques

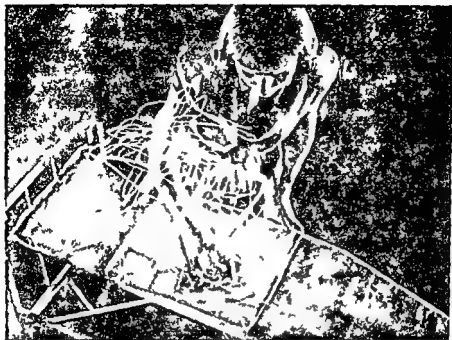
Improvements in methods of work have come about partly through the common sense approach but chiefly through laboratory research. There are certain practices so obviously wasteful of effort that one can improve them by wading in and doing quickly what shouts to be done.⁶ Such improvements are only a beginning however and slow painstaking research is required for developing fundamental principles in this as in other areas. Nevertheless laboratory techniques are not only slow but expensive little money is available for household research and situations in which the results will be applied are varied and change as new products and equipment are introduced in the market. Besides formal laboratory techniques there are simpler informal pencil and paper techniques used both by industry and researchers in home tasks.

FORMAL TECHNIQUES

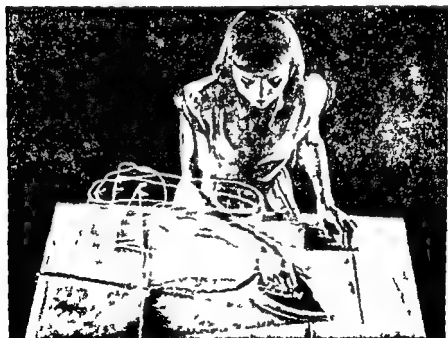
The formal techniques are chiefly micromotion film analysis and the accurate timing of motions with a stop watch or other means. The cycle graph has had some limited usage. It is a photographic device which registers the pathway of light of a small electric bulb attached to some portion of the body that is in action. (See illustrations p. 282.)

In film analysis the operation to be studied is filmed and later analyzed. It may be filmed at the normal speed of sixteen frames per second or at a slow speed of one frame per second. The latter called memomotion study simplifies analysis and highlights gross motions. Analysis of the

⁶Lecture by Dr. Lillian Gilbreth, Purdue Conference, 1915.



A Infectual, Nonrhythmic Strokes in Ironing as Recorded by Cyclegraph



B Reduced Number and Increased Effectiveness of Rhythmic Ironing Strokes as Recorded by Cyclegraph

film⁷ consists of charting with the use of symbols. Early symbols used were the therbligs. Timing for the purpose of charting is made possible with timing devices which are visible in the film or by counting frames.

Stopwatch technique consists of recording to a fraction of a second elements of motions. It is claimed that standards for each element can be established. There are however many competing sets of standard data in existence and hence little agreement as to actual time norms for these elements.⁸ One such set of data is stated in terms of Time Measurement Units: one TMU is 0.36 of a second or 0.006 of a minute.⁹ Further accuracy of the timing of motions is now possible through electronics recording a time unit as small as 0.000133 of a minute.¹⁰

SIMPLER PEN AND PENCIL TECHNIQUES

For purposes of influencing homemakers to become more motion minded the elaborate techniques of industry are out of place. Popularized forms of research films are of course good for arousing interest but the detailed analysis of films is impractical for homemakers. At the practical level certain simple techniques of study are possible—notably the process chart, the operation chart and the pathway or flow chart. Any one of these devices is usable by persons interested in work simplification in a study group or in a home. It is equally applicable if done with precision to true research in home tasks.

Process Chart. The process chart is a step-by-step description of a worker performing a given task in its entirety. It is an overall investigation and differs from an ordinary description of a worker's activities only in that a few symbols are used to classify the steps immediately into types. The authors have adapted some of these symbols from industry.

Symbol	Name of Symbol
○	Movement from place to place
◯	Operation
◻	Inspection for quantity or quality
▽	Delay
◎	Movement and operation done simultaneously

⁷ See Appendix pp 551-552-553

⁸ Adam Abruzzi, *Work Measurement: New Principles and Procedures* (New York: Columbia University, 1952), pp. 123-124.

⁹ Harold B. Maynard, G. J. Stegemerten and John L. Schwab, *Methods Time Measurement* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1948), p. 45.

¹⁰ J. Goldman and G. Nadler, "Electronics for Measuring Human Motions," *Science* Vol. 124 (October 25, 1956), p. 810.

The small circle indicates that the worker is going somewhere the large circle indicates that she is standing still but working with her hands the square indicates that she is checking what she has done the triangle indicates that nothing is happening the composite symbol indicates that she is accomplishing something with her hands while walking Thus in charting the setting of a table each time the worker walks is indicated with the small circle When her hands alone are working the large circle is used When she stands still but for example looks over her job to see if it is completed the square is used It can be distinguished from delay by the movement or focus of the eyes The advantage of using the symbols along with the description is that one may quickly count up the number of each type of steps A composite symbol counts as two activities when summarizing

It requires at least two persons to make a process chart one to do the task and at least one other to observe and record The time is relatively unimportant as the focus is upon the flow of work The chart helps to visualize the sequence of an activity For home tasks the worker is followed throughout and the chart may be called a process chart man analysis In industrial process charts sometimes a product not a given worker is followed but only the person or the thing can be charted at one time not both It is customary in this method of research to perform and chart the same task in an original and then in a revised way The count of symbols after the original way often indicates at a glance where improvement may be made An example of a portion of a process chart is given in Figure 10-1 Looking toward improvement one would immediately question four changes of place and two delays in only twelve steps and attempt to eliminate some or all of them Some delays are avoidable and some are not

Operation Chart An operation chart is similar to a process chart except that it picks up one particular step in a whole process and breaks it down into the work of each hand shown in parallel columns The same symbols may be used with the understanding that this time the small circle means a movement of the arm the large circle a movement of the fingers with the arm more or less stationary The triangle indicates complete idleness of both arm and fingers It takes considerably more skill to make an operation chart than a process chart man analysis It is practically impossible to make an accurate operation chart of two hands except through film analysis Each hand can however be followed by a separate observer and actions of both hands studied particularly for delays An example is given in Figure 10-2 It would be well to consider here if the idle hand (especially the left hand in step 7) could perform a more active part in the process such as turning the potato as pared

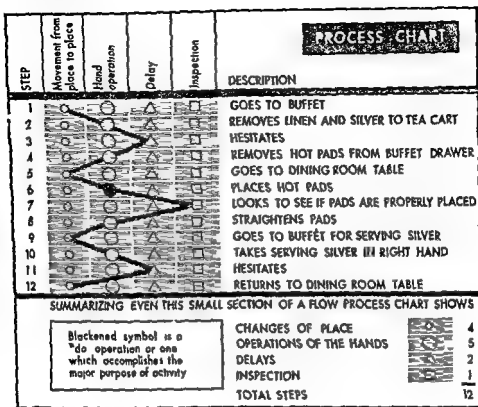


FIGURE 10-1 Process Chart Showing Setting a Table

The many values and one of the limitations of process and operation charts are well given as follows ¹¹

Thus the main uses of process and operational charts are for educational and promotional purposes. In this they serve an extremely useful end. They help in training investigators; they make one motion and time conscious; they sharpen one's power of observation; and they help in learning the principles of effective work. Also they assist in instructing in a new method. Too charting enables {one} to test his hypotheses by constructing the new method on paper and predicting its accomplishments. In other words charting creates an orderly environment for the development of improved work methods but in the final analysis much of the creation is the product of the analyst's ingenuity.

Multi-man Chart. The multi man chart is similar to the process chart. It is suited to the study of an activity that is carried out simultaneously.

¹¹ "What We Have Learned from the Industrial Engineer" *Work Simplification News Letter* Purdue University No. 11 (May 1945) pp. 9-10

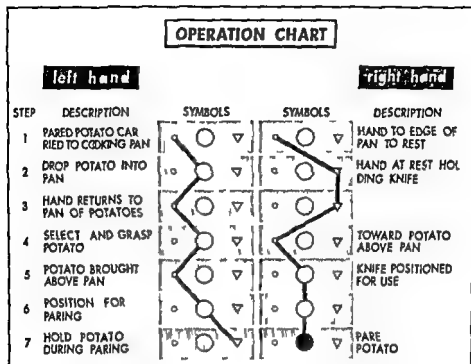


FIGURE 10-2 Operation Chart Showing Paring Potatoes

by two or more persons. The symbols already given may be used or ones fitted to a special task may be invented. The parts of the task should be timed with the accuracy fitting the situation. It is conceivable that certain glaringly bad uses of time may show up without any accurate timing device. An important point to watch is delay. For example, when two persons make a bed together, each will have certain delays while the other is occupied. Such an observation explains the basis of the finding that the labor time of two persons making a bed together is normally greater than the labor time of one person carrying out the same task. If dishes are wiped and the dishwashing process is carried out by two persons, there may be delays on either side.

Pathway or Flow Chart The last of the more informal devices for motion and time study is the pathway chart. The pin and string method was suggested first in the literature by Mrs. Gilbreth and has been used successfully by the authors in laboratory experiments. A floor plan is drawn to scale and fastened to a drawing board. Thumb tacks or pins

are put in where the worker turns and her pathway is measured from thread wound around the pins as she works. Two charts are used—one for the original and the other for the revised pathway (see Figures 10-3 and 10-4). If measured lengths of string are used the task of figuring distances traversed is much simplified. Because of tangling when removing any amount of string left over can be more easily measured than the total amount used. If not enough was measured off at the start additional measured amounts can be used.

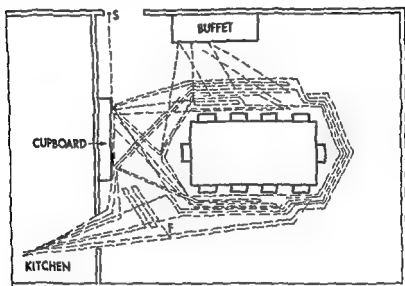


FIGURE 10-3 Pathway Chart—Original

Rhythm is a little investigated aspect of work simplification although the cyclegraph technique exists for its study.

Research Studies

Studies of work simplification of household tasks vary in scope, methods used, and quality of research. The earliest ones date from the 1930's. Their number increased during and soon after World War II and then apparently decreased. Among the reasons for the decrease is that many of the principles once established still hold good although current research on effective use of the body, discussed in the preceding chapter and of special value to incapacitated women, is adding new basic information. An additional reason is that the development of new products on the

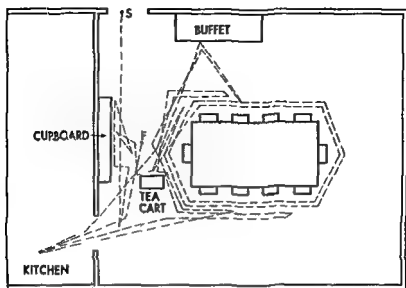


FIGURE 104 • Pathway Chart—Revised

market has simplified certain household tasks without specific research to accomplish that end. For example, the invention of contour sheets and electric blankets has simplified bedmaking far more than would have resulted with changed method but with traditional bedding.

The authors took an overview of work simplification research during the decade 1950-1960 from the *Selected Bibliography of Theses and Research in Family Economics and Home Management*¹². The weaknesses of this overview are obvious because it was based in the main on the title given in the bulletin, possibly leading both to omissions and wrong inclusions, and undoubtedly some studies during that period were omitted from the publication. Only studies presumably based on laboratory research techniques are here considered. The largest number of these recent studies fell into the classification of work and storage areas and equipment, although studies of equipment concerned with market selection and servicing were ruled out. Within the grouping there were perhaps one-fourth as many on storage as on work areas and equipment. There was a relatively small number of studies concerned with the simplification of specific household tasks. If the title indicated only time used or current practices, it was not included. Within this subcategory the

¹² Prepared by J. Davis and R. Deacon (American Home Economics Association, Washington 9, D.C., 1961).

largest number of studies were concerned with laundering perhaps ten in all. About half as many were concerned with food preparation, serving and clearing away. There were one or two each on child care, cleaning and house care, and sewing.

In each cluster of studies described below we shall include definitive studies, whether early or late.

BEDMAKING

The best known careful study of conventional bedmaking is that of Marianne Muse. It was carried out by the use of process chart, man analysis and pathway chart techniques, analyzing six different methods. As Muse stated:¹³

the amount of time and the number of steps required for making a bed depend on a combination of several factors, including the type of bed, types of and number of pieces of bedding in use, how well the job is done, the method of doing the work, and the speed of the worker.

There is probably no one best way of making beds under all conditions and by all types of workers (which may be equally true of most housekeeping jobs).

The chief time and motion reductions made in the study were as follows, but no single improved method combined all of the best features:

	Most	Least
Distance walked	262 feet	23 feet
Time	6 min 28 sec.	2 min 42 sec
Hand operations alone	26	20
Hand operations combined with walking	12	0
Moves	21	6

Improvements consisted essentially in making the bed completely from one side or at one corner of the bed before proceeding to another.

CLEANING

Studies of cleaning cover simple tasks, complicated tasks, in their entirety, and use of specific pieces of cleaning equipment.

Of complicated tasks, cleaning a bedroom was early studied, without great precision of detail, by the process and pathway chart techniques.¹⁴ No improvements were made in the separate steps, but the worker cut

¹³ Marianne Muse, *Saving Time and Steps in Bedmaking*, U. S. Agr. Exp. Sta. Bull. 351, March 1949, p. 3.

¹⁴ Sylvia Shiras, *Take Time to Make Time and How Does She Do It*, film strips, Household Finance Corp., Chicago, Ill.

down number of operations from 29 to 21 and reduced distance traversed chiefly by changing order of work and combining parts

The washing of a door was studied by Everett and Gross¹⁵ The procedure used was to observe 25 homemakers in their own homes carrying out certain tasks in their accustomed manner From these observations an average composite method for each task was developed using the most frequently observed elements of work This method was then filmed and analyzed and a revised composite method for each task was developed from the best observed elements It was then filmed Reduction of 10 per cent in time between revised and average methods of washing a door was effected through the four modifications shown in Figure 10-5

Although not done specifically on household tasks studies of janitor tools and cleanup processes for office and factory conditions have some application to the household¹⁶

A study of wet mopping showed that a well-designed flat rectangular mop allows 30 per cent more cotton in contact with the floor than does a thicker round mop of equal weight A mop handle with a knob increases the potential length of stroke As to method the operator should mop in a slight arc from side to side in front of himself rather than by pushing and pulling with a cotton mop There should be a slight loop at the end of each stroke for the return stroke Direction of work to secure a full stroke and value of momentum are also important A saving of 22 per cent in time was effected when a 5 x 120 foot aisle in a factory was mopped lengthwise instead of crosswise

In washing factory windows a change in equipment as given below increased production from 316 13 x 10 inch panes to 910 panes of the same size in a given time or 188 per cent increase

Activity	Old Equipment	New Equipment
Washing	Wet rag	Wet sponge
Drying	Chamois	Squeegee
Polishing	Dry cloth	—
Cleaning edges at sash	—	Dry rag

DISHWASHING

An early study of dishwashing was made by Heiner and Vedder¹⁷ The research methods used were counting of motions by a trained observer

¹⁵ Esther Everett and Irma H. Gross *Mind Your Motions as You Work* Mich. Exp. Sta. Folder 5 (October 1946)

¹⁶ Ralph M. Barnes *Time and Motion Study* 2d ed. (New York: Wiley, 1940) pp. 48-53

¹⁷ M. E. Heiner and V. M. Vedder "Studies in Dishwashing Methods: An Attempt to Apply Methods of Job Analysis to a Household Process" *Journal of Home Economics* Vol. 22 (1930) pp. 393-407

DO IT THIS WAY

—Not This Way

(By doing so, you can save 10 per cent of the usual time)



Place pail on object of convenient height rather than on floor



Use cleaning agent of non soap type



Wash using long strokes



Keep dry cloth in left hand pocket to dry door with left hand



10 PER CENT LESS TIME

FIGURE 10-5 Washing a Door

and stop-watch timing. There were many variables in the study and the effects of the different ones were not isolated. Total reduction in both time and motions was as follows:

Method	Motions	Time
Present practice	1 954	28 min 8 sec
Recommended synthesis	1 008	22 min 58 sec

The gains were made chiefly by washing dishes only once daily instead of three times, by draining instead of drying with a towel, and by leaving the dishes in the drain basket until used again.

Later studies on dishwashing have brought out further recommendations for this task. Goble's study through using micromotion analysis of five different dishwashing methods showed a possible time improvement of 8 per cent on a sink method and 23 per cent on a sinkless method. Her special contribution however came through analysis of cycles of washing one cup, one plate, one glass, and one group of silver. From these analyses she recommends:¹⁸

1. Wash the dish at water level to eliminate carrying water in the cloth to the dish.
2. Wash the dish with a circular movement in order to move in the easiest manner and to allow the cloth to be self-dipping in the action.
3. Retain cloth in right hand (if right handed) except when reaching for dishes. The operator photographed groped for the dishcloth many times during the dishwashing period.
4. After washing one item, move hand with cloth to next item to be washed. This positions the cloth while the left disposes of the washed dish.
5. Dispose of washed dish with the hand nearest the drainer or tray. Reaching across the body to dispose of a dish requires a longer time and more motion.
6. Use the left hand to pivot the dish during the washing process instead of turning it with both hands.
7. When drying dishes, save motion by holding an end of the towel in each hand, keeping the hands close together and close to the dishes.

Nelson also using micromotion study concentrated on direction of work, but in addition studied the use of a shallow versus a deep rinse compartment of a two-compartment sink.¹⁹ After setting up certain procedures based both on earlier research and on the opinions of specialists, she studied four methods combining the two variables. Her findings are given below and support the desirability of a right to left sequence.

¹⁸ Eva L. Goble, *Work Simplification in Dishwashing*, *Journal of Home Economics*, Vol. 40 (1948), pp. 195-196.

¹⁹ Gladys M. Nelson, *A Study of Dishwashing Methods from Right to Left and from Left to Right by Means of Micromotion Analysis*, Unpublished Master's thesis, State College of Washington, 1947.

which has long been favored. The deep tray as compared with the shallow tray for rinsing further cut down motions by one fourth although it added slightly to the time of the right to left flow of work.

Sequence	Sink Compartment for Rinsing	Comparison of Motions Used (per cent)	Time Required*
Right to left	Shallow	100.0	3 min. 52 sec.
Left to right	Shallow	102.3	0 min. 1 sec.
Right to left	Deep	74.3	1 min. 22 sec.
Left to right	Deep	91.2	5 min. 21 sec.

* This is a relative value of the actual time required.

The introduction of the automatic dishwasher brought the obvious question of its saving in time and effort. *A Study of Hand Versus Mechanical Dishwashing Methods*²⁰ conducted by Elaine Knowles Weaver at Ohio State University investigated this and related problems such as changes in practices and learning habits of women using the machine. The research was carried out in ten homes over a 30-day period of hand dishwashing followed by two periods of equal or greater length of machine dishwashing. The saving in effort was expressed subjectively by the cooperators in the statement that they were unanimous in their feelings that it occurred.²¹

There was however considerable variation in actual time released by the mechanical dishwasher by different cooperators—from 32.7 to 62.2 per cent. This variation points up the importance of learning to use equipment effectively. For example some women continued to wash 20 to 25 per cent of items by hand, others as few as one item per day out of a daily average of 114.5 items.²²

FOOD PREPARATION

Of studies of separate tasks an early over all one was that of preparation of mashed potatoes done by Heiner.²³ It investigated types of tools used as well as variation of method in relation to each kind of tool. Her one general conclusion probably applicable to other small hand tools was that work conditions affected the time-cost more than tool selected.

²⁰E. Knowles Weaver, C. E. Bloem and I. Fehlmüller, *A Study of Hand Versus Mechanical Dishwashing Methods*, Ohio Agr. Exp. Sta. Research Bull. 77, May 1934.

²¹*Ibid.* p. 27.

²²*Ibid.* p. 28.

²³Mary K. Heiner, *Simplifying Home Preparation of Potatoes*, *Journal of Home Economics*, Vol. 35 (1943), pp. 646-652.

Work conditions included both organization of work center and simplification of work method

During World War II a study at Michigan State University of preparing spinach yielded 20 per cent improvement in time (See Figure 10-6 left half)

A detailed study of the home canning of green string beans was carried out by Lindeman through process chart techniques in a farm home²⁴ Her savings came from changes in work area and equipment also from elimination of some trips and operations and were as follows

	<i>Old Method</i>	<i>Improved Method</i>
Operations	169	90
Feet walked	719	102
Time	4 hrs 37 min	4 hrs 7 min

LAUNDERING

Elaine Knowles Weavers research in ironing²⁵ was an early scholarly study in this area From it came as a by product her widely used Cornell Bulletin for Homemakers *A Simple Way to Iron a Shirt*²⁶

A Motion Study on Laundry Arrangements by Ruth A Eyres and Elizabeth W Wiley compared three arrangements of laundry equipment keeping methods of washing and other factors constant²⁷ In each arrangement there were four units sorting washing starching and drying In two arrangements the operator worked from right to left in one from left to right Trips steps and motions were compared Difference in steps was negligible among the three arrangements but Arrangement I (see Figure 10 7) was superior in both trips and motions

<i>Arrangement</i>	<i>Trips (average of 3 trials)</i>	<i>Motions (average of 3 trials)</i>
I Right to left units linear	54	378
II Right to left units partly linear partly at right angles	61	464
III Left to right	62	449

²⁴ Jean Lindeman *A Time and Motion Study in Home Canning the Kitchen Reporter* published by Helminator March 1947

²⁵ See pp 264 265

²⁶ Bull 679 December 1944

²⁷ Ruth A Eyres and Elizabeth W Wiley *A Motion Study on Laundry Arrangements Wash Agr Exp Sta Circular 147* April 1951

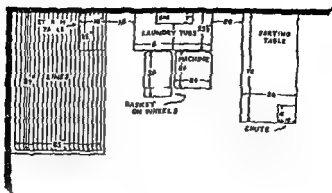
DO IT THIS WAY:

—Not This Way:

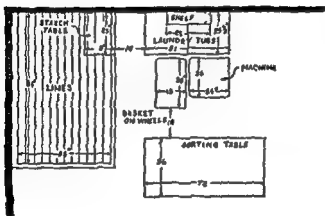
(By doing so, you can save 20 per cent of the usual time.)



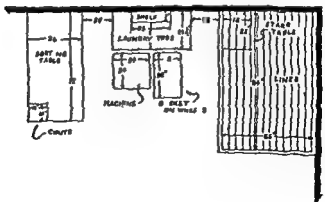
Figure 10-6 Washing Spinach



ARRANGEMENT I



ARRANGEMENT II



ARRANGEMENT III

FIGURE 10-7 Arrangements of Laundry Equipment

Adapted from R. A. Eyer and E. Beth W. Wiley, *A Motion Study of Laundry Arrangement*,
 Wash. Agr. Exp. Sta. Circular 142, April, 1931.

In addition to comparing laundry arrangements this study pointed up the parts of the washing process in which the largest numbers of motions and steps are used. Hence research on these parts would probably yield the greatest improvement. As shown in Table 10 1 for Arrangement I soaking, washing and cleanup took most motions, rinsing and starching took intermediate number of motions with sorting and hanging taking the least number. The other arrangements showed similar though not identical ranking of motions in these parts of the washing process.

TABLE 10 1 Motions Used in Laundering (Arrangement I)*

<i>Activity</i>	<i>Motions</i>	<i>Rank from Most to Least</i>
Soaking	100	1
Washing	93	2
Cleanup	81	3
Rinsing	45	4
Starching	39	5
Hanging	14	6
Sorting	6	7

Ruth A. Eyres and Elizabeth W. Willey. *A Motion Study of Laundry Arrangements*. Wash. Ag. Exp. Sta. Circular 142. April 1951.

As to footsteps the findings for Arrangement I were as shown in Table 10 2 with similarity in rank in the other arrangements. Washing and cleanup are again important but rinsing and soaking exchanged rank position.

TABLE 10 2 Footsteps Used in Laundering (Arrangement I)*

<i>Activity</i>	<i>Steps</i>	<i>Rank from Most to Least</i>
Rinsing	49	1
Washing	34	2
Cleanup	24	3
Soaking	9	4
Sorting	4	5
Starching	2	6
Hanging	1	7

Ruth A. Eyres and Elizabeth W. Willey. *A Motion Study of Laundry Arrangements*. Wash. Ag. Exp. Sta. Circular 142. April 1951.

Ellen Frazier in *Energy and Time Costs of Four Methods of Handling Clothes in Drying* ² studied two types of factors: 1) equipment—the line

Master's thesis, Cornell University 1935

the reel and the automatic clothes dryer 2) positions of the basket for holding the wet clothes She 1) recorded a) times and b) number of reaches and bends and 2) calculated the oxygen index of motions used in order to compare degree of difficulty Among her findings were the automatic dryer was superior to either straight line or reel on all three measures the basket of wet clothes on a cart instead of the floor gave a lower (more favorable) oxygen index but made little or no favorable difference in time or number of reaches and bends

WORK AND STORAGE AREAS

Some studies have been made of kitchens as judged by time and motions required to prepare certain foods or meals in them Muse in an early study of this type introduced nine variables into a kitchen in



C S D A Ph tog ph

Beltsville Kitchen Work Room—Supply Cupboard



U S D A Photograph

Beltsville Energy Saving Kitchen—Mix Center

which a standard dinner menu for five persons was prepared³⁰ All changes were related to equipment. Resulting savings are shown in Table 10.3. A maximum saving of 44.5 per cent of time and 91.3 per cent of steps was reached. A glance at this table shows that the addition of certain pieces of equipment accounted for nearly half of the time saved and

³⁰ Marianne Muse, *Kitchen Equipment and Arrangement*. Vt. Agr. Exp. Sta. Bull. 37, May 1934.

TABLE 10-3 Effects of Grouped Changes in Kitchen Equipment on Saving of Time and Steps*

<i>Grouped Factors</i>	<i>Time Saved (per cent)</i>	<i>Steps Saved (per cent)</i>
I Additions of Equipment		
Stack table	6.2	9.2
Drain boards	9.2	15.5
Wheel tray	5.2	25.6
Total	18.6	50.1
II Arrangement of Equipment		
Utensils	2.2	11.1
Food	2.4	14.5
General compact arrangement	7.4	10.2
Total	12.0	35.6
III Changes in Equipment		
Stoves		
Wood to oil	4.1	4.1
Oil to electric	1.2	0.9
Hand beater to electric beater	8.6	0.6
Total	13.9	5.6
Grand total	44.5	91.3

*Based on *National Kitchen Equipment and Arrangement Investigation*, Exp. Sta. Bull. 375, May 1934.

over half of the steps. The substitution of the electric mixer for hand beating and mixing tools was the most important single factor in time saving. The rearrangement of equipment was about two-thirds as effective as the addition of equipment in saving both time and steps. The addition of the wheel tray alone accounted for over one-fourth of the step saving.

The Purdue laboratory study of three basic types of kitchen arrangement was also made through the preparation of meals.³⁰ These kitchen types were the strip or two-wall type with equipment on two opposite sides, the L-shape with equipment on two adjacent sides, and the U-shape with equipment on three sides, the sink in the bar of the U. Figures 10-8 and 10-9 show the differences among them in motions (transportation, operation, delay, inspection),³¹ trips, and time used. The striking advantage is with the U kitchen.

³⁰ M. E. Mundel, "Factors Affecting Ease of Kitchen Work," *Kitchen Reporter*, published by Kelvinator, March 1947.

³¹ Transportation—moving from place to place; operation—doing something at one place; delay—a necessary wait at one place; inspection—the examining of the quality of an item.

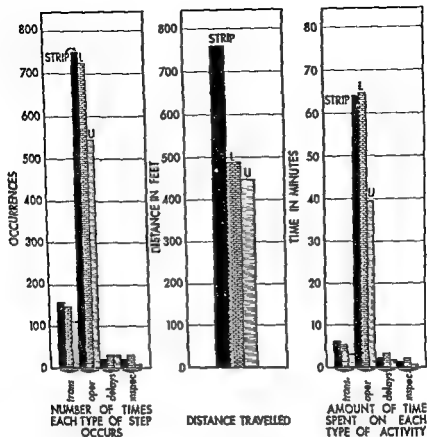


FIGURE 10-8 Steps, Distance, and Time Compared for Meal Preparation in Three Basic Types of Kitchen Arrangement—Strip, L, and U

Reprinted from M. E. Steidl, "Factors Affecting Ease of Kitchen Work," *Kitchen Reporter*, published by Inventor, March 1947.

Steidl's research on Supplementary Sinks in Home Kitchens³² stems from earlier findings on the importance of the sink in work activities in the kitchen. Her study slightly favored the range center for a supplementary sink as promoting continuity of work and fewer trips between centers. She, however, made no strong recommendation for adding a second sink.

Heights of working surfaces were studied in relation to body measure

³² Rose E. Steidl, *Supplementary Sinks in Home Kitchens*, Cornell Agr. Exp. Sta. Memoir 374, October 1960.

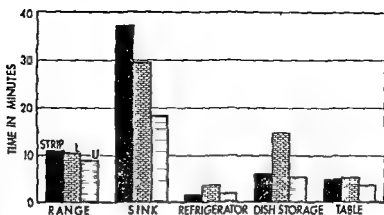


FIGURE 10-9 Time Spent at Various Pieces of Equipment During Meal Preparation in Three Basic Types of Kitchen Arrangement—Strip, L, and U

Report from M. E. M. del F. et al. Effect of Kitchen Work Aids Report published by Nat. Inst. of Health 1947

ments and preferred activity heights of 312 Oregon and 250 Washington women.³³ Some of the actual heights recommended were

Heights	inches from Floor
Preferred for Working Surfaces with Worker Standing	
1 Floor or sink	32½
2 Mixing table	32
3 Pull-out pastry board	33½
4 Bottom of sink 5 inches or more deep when sink drainboard is used as mixing table	31
5 Ironing board	32½
6 Cutting table	35¼

A very practical approach to work simplification in the kitchen work area was the Wisconsin study³⁴ of possibilities of improvement through reorganization of existing major facilities. The study included a well a methodology of measuring existing organization and checking its effectiveness. For the latter purpose, motion picture analysis proved the most

³³ Maude Wilson, E. H. Roberts and Ruth Thayer, *Standards for Working Surface Heights and Other Space Units of the Dwelling*, Wash. Agr. Exp. Sta. Bull. 545, 1937.

³⁴ M. L. Cowley, S. M. Steele and M. B. Kishleez, "Savings in Distance Walked in Kitchens Through Reorganization of Storage and Work Space," *Journal of Home Economics*, Vol. 50, No. 3 (March 1958), pp. 169-174.

accurate method but careful recording by an observer was acceptable. As to possibilities of improvement through reorganization, total distance saved in preparing a standardized meal was 27.9 per cent (by film analysis) the time saved was 10.5 per cent. The work center most in need of reorganization was the range center, that in least need the mix center.

From Cornell University came research in kitchen storage carried out by M. K. Heiner and H. E. McCullough.³⁵ After finding out what food items, utensils, china, and glassware a family commonly stored, they designed storage for these items based on existing knowledge of desirable reaches and stretches of women of different heights. Major recommendations of this study were for more separate shelves and compartments, many of these much shallower and closer together than traditional ones. Some dimensions recommended for storage were:

Maximum height	72 inches
Maximum side-to-side reach	48 inches
Maximum depth from front to back	16 inches
Shelves for most used items	Within 24 inch radius from elbow
Lowest point for most used items	25 inches from floor

A later study of storage space by McCracken and Richardson³⁶ gave detailed recommendations for heights of shelves. For storing items requiring two hands to place, a 36 inch height proved best, a range of 28-52 inches, good. For storing lighter weight items, both 20-28 inches and 52-60 inches were considered possible. In addition, they made specific recommendations for wall cabinet shelf depths related to different shelf heights.

CLASSES OF CHANGE

For the average person, work simplification can be of help in two ways. First, a worker may actually use the results of laboratory studies, that is, learn easier methods on a particular task. One of the chief reasons for including the research findings above was to provide, for those interested, definite motion and time saving ways on specific tasks. There is evidence that even the little that is known of easier procedures for definite jobs in the home is not widespread. Since World War I, the hospital method of making a bed completely on one side and then on the other, necessitating only one trip around it, has been taught in home nursing and house care classes. Twenty-five years later, in a survey of housekeeping methods

³⁵ M. K. Heiner and H. E. McCullough, *Functional Kitchen Storage*, Cornell Univ. Agr. Exp. Sta. Bull. 816, June 1948.

³⁶ E. C. McCracken and M. Richardson, "Human Energy Expenditures as Criteria for the Design of Household Storage Facilities," *Journal of Home Economics*, Vol. 51, No. 3 (March 1959), pp. 198-206.

in a college town only one woman out of the twelve interviewed knew of this method. Muse found only seven out of 183 women using it an even smaller proportion.³⁷ The second kind of help is more far reaching and more challenging. When interest is aroused in the subject anyone may become motion minded. What is motion mindedness? Nothing more than the constant application of some general principles of work simplification to one's own jobs. It is a point of view that adds interest to routine tasks and makes those tasks less of a burden.

Motion mindedness is not a mental state that comes of its own accord. Arousing interest is an excellent first step but a classified knowledge of some of the principles of motion study provides direction for cutting down time and motions. It should be said in passing that speeding up old ways of work should never be the conscious approach toward cutting down time. The lessening of time results from fewer motions or from more effective motions or both.

There is such a thing as arm chair research in this pursuit of motion mindedness. The famous Gilbreth questions: What? Why? When? Where? By whom? How? are the backbone of this type of analysis. Answering one or more of these questions may provide all the work simplification necessary in a given situation. For example, Why, when truthfully answered, may indicate that a given task need not be done at all. Omitting it may be the most complete kind of work simplification.

Another familiar approach to armchair research is the analysis of every job into three parts: Make ready, Do, and Put away. The balance among these parts bears watching to see that the preparation or Make ready and the clean up or Put away are not excessive as compared with the most important part, the Do.

The How of doing a job can be attacked without laboratory procedure through a scheme of classes of change. The concept of classes of change began in the 1940's with Marvin Mundel³⁸ at Purdue University who classified all examples of simplification into five groups. After long use of the five classes and an attempt by the senior author to describe them to women in the Far East, the authors have summarized the five classes of change into three. Each class is based on the point where a change is initiated. Classes II and III of necessity bring changes of the Class I type and Class III may also bring changes of the Class II type. The point of origin of change in Class I is the worker's activity; in Class II the work space and tools; in Class III the product. See Table 10-4.

³⁷ Marianne Muse, *Time Expenditures on Homemaking Activities in 183 Vermont Farm Homes*, *Vt. Agr. Exp. Sta. Bull.* 530, June 1946, p. 57.

³⁸ M. E. Mundel, *Systematic Motion and Time Study* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J., Prentice Hall, 1950), pp. 21-26.

TABLE 10-4 Classes of Change

Class	Worker's Activity	Work and Storage Space and Tools	Product
I	Change in Hand and body motions Sequence of steps	Unchanged	Unchanged
II	Change in <div> <div> Hand and body motions </div> <div> Sequence of steps </div> </div> Resulting from change in work and storage space and tools	<div> Change in Work space </div> <div> Made more usable More suitable space found Storage space Items rearranged in present space More suitable space found Equipment More effective tools obtained </div>	Unchanged
III	Change in <div> <div>Hand and body motions</div> <div>Sequence of steps</div> </div> Resulting from change in product	<div> Changes may result in Work space Storage space Equipment Resulting from change in product </div>	<div> Change in Beginning product— Different raw materials used e.g. cake mixes versus sepa- rate ingredients End product e.g. apple dessert of baked apples instead of apple pie </div>

Class I Changes in Hand and Body Motions

This class involves changes in hand and body motions only work place tools and product remaining the same The sequence of steps in the task may or may not be changed Examples of change in motions alone are putting away dishes with two hands instead of one elimination of useless pats in bedmaking using rhythmic motions in sweeping Improvements in body mechanics discussed in the preceding chapter are Class I changes Examples of changes in sequence of steps are tucking in all covers from one side of bed before going to opposite side mixing cookies by putting all ingredients into bowl at once

MOTIONS

Study of motions in industry determines which kinds of motions require the most time³⁹ and are therefore to be avoided in setting up a revised method The amount of time needed for a reach (in which the hand or arm goes to an object) or a move (in which an object is moved to a new position) increases with the distance moved and the amount of sight and/or control needed The amount of time required for grasp of an object increases with the size of the object the difficulty of getting it into the fingers necessity of shifting in the hand and necessity of selecting from a group of objects Motions against gravity are slower than those with gravity because more rather than fewer parts of the body are involved Household examples of working with gravity are cutting vegetables down on a board rather than whittling them into the air and pushing cut rhubarb from the cutting board into a bowl instead of scooping it into the hands and lifting it into the bowl

The increased use of the left hand is not necessarily a time saver according to one study of its unconscious use by experienced home makers⁴⁰ With one exception the process was slower when first one hand and then the other was used than when the right hand only was used It may be that in the household where many different tasks are performed by the same worker for relatively short periods that skill would have to be developed separately and consciously for each task in order to make wider use of the left hand practical Its increased use is of course always desirable if employed simultaneously with the right hand in cases where formerly only the right hand had been used

³⁹ Maynard et al. *op cit* pp 42-43

⁴⁰ Irma H. Gross and Esther Everett Research in Work Simplification Washing a Door Preparing a Head of Lettuce Cleaning Spinach *Journal of Home Economics* Vol. 37 (1945) pp 159-163



Courtesy of Young & Rubicam Inc.

Class I Change There's Always a Better Way to Do It!

Changes in posture along the lines suggested in the preceding chapter⁴¹ are all Class I changes. Long handled tools such as bathtub brushes and dustpans promote correct posture but the same household tool may be used effectively or ineffectively as far as posture is concerned without relationship to the accomplishment of work with the tool. A long handled tool—for example a floor mop—may be badly used or a short handled tool—for example a dustpan—may be so handled as to minimize body strain (see Figures 11-4 and 10-10). It is interesting to note that the large body motions reported by Bratton to require more energy as indicated by oxygen consumption are also more time-consuming than smaller body motions. To bend, stoop or kneel on one knee requires more time than to reach.⁴²

⁴¹ See p. 63 ff.

⁴² Maynard *et al.* *op cit.* p. 112.



FIGURE 10-10 Using a Short Handled Tool

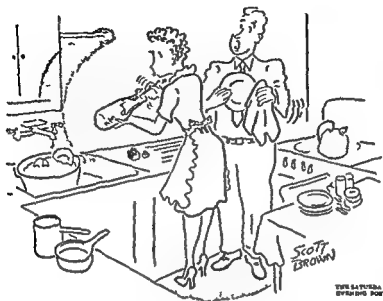
Visit 1 from Post H. en. & Ext. on Se v. c. L. S. Dept. f. Agr cult. r.
W. sh. g. n. PA 186 1931

SEQUENCE OF STEPS

Certain well accepted recommendations for bettering work method fall into Class 1 Improving routing is one example For effective routing the logical direction of the sequence of steps from the beginning until the completion of a task must be discovered The goal is reduction in total distance and in the number of retracements Each unit of a task is to be performed with a view to the handling of the next step in mind For example routing in dishwashing requires that stacking be done in such place and manner as to anticipate ease in washing drying and storage of dishes The making of a cake involves the complicated routing problem of collecting materials arranging for effective order and method of combining and finally clearing The effective pathway in a sequence of work may be linear that is right left as in dishwashing or backward forward and forward backward as in preparation of potatoes when utensils for washing peeling and rinsing are arranged in the sink so that the pan for peeling is in front of that for rinsing Routing may take place in large areas or in small In general the avoidance of crosspaths is desirable

If the steps in a process can be reduced in number through elimination combination or change in order motions can be reduced Scalding dishes draining them and allowing them to air dry without wiping is an example of elimination of a step Combining steps known as dovetailing may be illustrated by setting the table for the next meal immediately without putting washed dishes away from the preceding meal The old custom of a baking day also illustrates dovetailing By preparing several

Sequence of Steps is Important!—A Class I Change



May I make a suggestion Precious? Write the milkman a note first then put it in the bottle

baked products in succession mixing bowls and other utensils could be utilized more than once simply by rinsing without drying and putting away between usages Cumulating is another phase of change in sequence It is probably more a time saving than a hand motion saving device but may cut down steps It consists in doing several things at once—for example baking two products together necessitates less preparing and watching of the oven and perhaps less walking to the stove or even the kitchen than baking them separately

A change in order of steps is probably harder than combination or elimination of steps The hospital method of bedmaking has already been given The work curve discussed in relation to management of energy has implications for this class of change Utilizing the WU may involve a change of sequence in doing work For example doing all furniture dusting in a given area before proceeding to another cleaning process such as dust mopping is a case in point This type of change also runs into the principles of effective time management If a woman learns to do several things at once she is really changing her general production sequence of work though not necessarily the sequence of a given task

For instance if a homemaker bakes apples and gingerbread for the evening meal while she is washing the noon dishes she has a different production sequence from one in which gingerbread and apples are baked either together or separately but earlier or later in the day

SKILL IN WORK ACTIVITY

The development of skill may be considered as a generalized Class I change. The term *skill* as defined in the dictionary combines familiar knowledge united with readiness in practical application. It is roughly the ability to do effectively. It definitely affects both the time and energy used in performing work. The skilled person uses fewer and less awkward motions.

What then is mechanical skill? Mrs Gilbreth differentiates between it and dexterity by the amount of satisfaction derived from the work, saying that the person who performs a task easily but without satisfaction is merely dextrous. Pear says that as knowledge seems to be the integrated and systematized collection of past experiences, so skill is the organization and integration of bodily habits. According to Schultz, skill in a job is the result of developing a habit pattern of work which effectively combines attitudes, feelings, verbal instructions and movements.⁴³

Acquiring of Skill In acquiring mechanical skill the learning process has much in common with the gaining of knowledge. It has, however, certain characteristics of its own. The vocabulary for describing muscular sensations and thus for transmitting ideas about them is almost lacking.⁴⁴ For example, it is difficult to express in words that everyone can understand the feel of relaxed as compared with tensed muscles. The teaching of physical skills has also in the past been in the hands of persons less well educated than those who impart knowledge. They have presumably worked less on the way skill is developed than in simply demonstrating it to be copied as best the learner could.

Much in the way of household skill is learned by children through observation and imitation. With a little direction, however, it is probably as easy for a child to learn a skillful method of performing a task as a bungling method, provided the former is not beyond his present stage of development.

Fundamental steps in the acquiring of skill as analyzed by Brozek are 1) teaching the manipulation, 2) providing understanding as to the prin-

⁴³ Richard S. Schultz, *Wartime Supervision of Workers* (New York: Harper and Row, 1943), pp. 118, 119.

⁴⁴ Tom Hatherly Pear, *Skill in Work and Play* (London: Methuen, 1924).

ciples of motion economy and 3) stimulating a desire for greater accomplishment⁴²

Learning Manipulation As the first step Schulz also stresses manipulation in imparting skill⁴³ In teaching manipulation he gives seven steps explanation demonstration initiation practice observation thinking and correction These steps except for thinking are the time honored ones used in the apprentice type of learning

Understanding Motion Economy There is experimental evidence that Brozek's second step—providing understanding of motion economy—is important in the learning of skill A study by J W Cox of Cambridge England contrasted drill like practice with intelligent training⁴⁴ A group with training which included considerable discussion of the job equipment and methods used repeated the task only 85 times compared with 440 times for a group which attempted to gain skill through mere repetition When retested with a control group the trained group showed significant gain in skill while the practicing group showed little more skill than the control group which had no previous repetition on the task

Another important point in developing skill according to Dr Goodwin Watson is checking on success⁴⁵

For example in trying to draw a five inch line you may draw as many as a thousand but unless you check up every little while by measuring your line you will not be any more accurate in your last attempt than in your first Practice by itself never makes perfect only practice with the knowledge of success and with the satisfaction in success makes perfect

Skill on a particular task developed through mere repetition apparently does not transfer significantly to other tasks while skill developed through intelligent training tends to transfer to a fairly wide range of manual operations This finding is particularly significant for homemakers since their work involves many different tasks for which transfer of skill is highly important Such suggestions as relaxing the parts of the body not in use in order to increase skill are a kind of help in learning

⁴² J M Brozek "Psychological Factors in Relation to Performance and Fatigue *Proceedings of Federation of American Societies for Experimental Biology* Vol 2 No 3 (1945) p 138

⁴³ Schulz *op cit* p 119

⁴⁴ Brozek *op cit* pp 138 139

⁴⁵ Goodwin Watson *Homemaking as a Center for Research* (New York Teachers College Columbia University 1940) p 16

that goes beyond observation of another worker no matter how skilled the worker may be.⁴⁹ Another definite suggestion stems from the discovery that total skill is actually more than the sum of the parts. There should be a free flow from one motion to the next rather than a series of discrete motions which are made one after another.⁵⁰

Stimulating Desire The third step in training for skill—namely stimulating desire—is more vague than the two preceding steps. Nickell and Dorsey emphasize appreciation by family members and friends as important in learning skill.⁵¹ Mabel Rollins once pointed out in a talk the importance of favorable family atmosphere not only in learning skill but in maintaining it.⁵² She was concerned with the family background of the person as affecting his productivity in the world of business and industry but her ideas are equally applicable to skill and productivity in the home.

QUESTIONS LEADING TO CLASS I CHANGES

To challenge the individual homemaker to become motion minded and invent her own short cuts here are some searching questions in relation to Class I changes:

1. Can you cut down on the number of motions you use?
 - a. Can you carry more at one trip?
 - b. Can you eliminate unnecessary hand motions by avoiding the shift of tools from one place to another or from one hand to another during an operation?
 - c. Can you combine motions by pre-positioning? This means either leaving an article in the position in which you will use it again or getting it into position while you are transporting it. For example keep a paring knife in a rack or get spinach into position for cutting as you carry it to the place where you dispose of the roots.
2. Can you reduce work time by using both hands at once? If so, do you balance their movements by using both at the same time and rate of speed but in opposite directions?

⁴⁹ Ethyl R. Graley, *Illustrative Material for Correct Working Arrangements and Good Postural Practices in Home-making Tasks*. Unpublished Masters thesis, Kansas State College, 1933.

⁵⁰ H. E. Burr, *Applied Psychology* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, 1948), p. 510.

⁵¹ Pauline Nickell and Jean M. Dorsey, *Management in Family Living*, 2nd ed. (New York: Wiley, 1950), pp. 217-218.

⁵² National Council on Family Relations, New York, 1949.

- 3 Can you simplify work by changing the direction of your motions?
 - a Do you utilize gravity? Do you tip a hot iron during a pause in its use rather than lifting it on or a stand?
 - b Do you end one motion where the next is to begin? Do you use back and forth strokes in dusting and polishing?
- 4 Does your eye precede your motion to direct it? This principle is well recognized in golf less so in sweeping or using dusting tools
- 5 Can you reduce motions by changing the steps in the process?
 - a Have you broken the job down into parts?
 - b Can you eliminate any part?
 - c Can you combine any parts?
 - d Can you rearrange the remaining parts to
 - 1 Make greater use of the warming up periods
 - 2 Save steps?
- 6 Have you considered in which areas the development of mechanical skill would add the most to your resources? Can you suggest ways of developing this skill?

Class II Changes in Work and Storage Space and Equipment

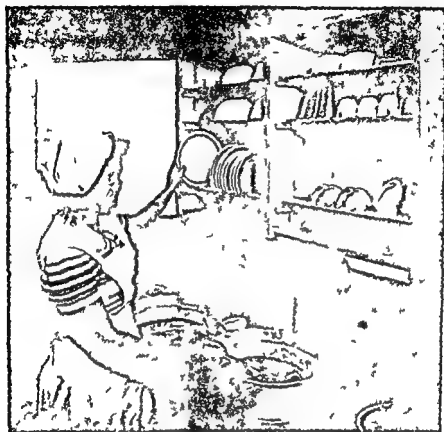
Examples of this class of change are a tray to carry dishes vacuum cleaner attachment for dusting an electric mixer a working surface of the right height the electrolytic method of cleaning silver organizing storage space basic rearrangement of large kitchen equipment

PRINCIPLES RELATED TO STORAGE AREAS

The Finnish kitchen shown on page 314 exemplifies reduction in both motions and steps of a task brought about by a Class II change. The equipment for air drying dishes in the storage cupboard over the sink makes possible omitting one step in disposing of dishes after washing for the two steps of placing dishes in a drainer and later in a cupboard are combined into one step.

Class II changes bring more dramatic results than those of Class I. All of Muse's kitchen changes were in Class II. She was able to save about 45 per cent of time and 91 per cent of steps as compared with a probable maximum saving of 20 per cent of time in Class I changes where motions alone are involved.

The great disadvantage of Class II changes is that many of them are expensive. Not all of them are. It costs nothing in money to arrange items effectively on a work space or in a cabinet (See Figures 10-11 and 10-12). It costs nothing in money to change to correct posture when working at a



A Finnish Kitchen

Note a r gem t for How ng d h e t d n a f a d y u b o a r d C r t e y f t h H l k
F i l a d W o r k E f f i c i e n c y A s s o c i a t i o n

sink (Class I) it costs money to change that sink to the correct height for a worker. The amount of money will vary from a large sum for a new sink to a small expenditure for a device for raising the dishpan. Class II changes are the ones with which architects and manufacturers have become familiar. Years ago Hildegard Kneeland pointed out how much simpler it would be to train the relatively few architects, builders and manufacturers than it would be to educate the millions of homemakers. In addition, the mistakes of architects live on for years and are expensive to correct.

A Class II Changel



Come on, Fred everything's on the table.

VE SATURDAY EVENING POST

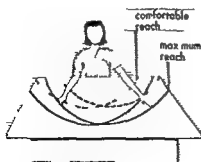


FIGURE 10-11 Keep Things Within Easy Reach

Ad r ed f on P t e How much Extension Service U.S. Dept. of Agriculture
W hington PA 186 1951

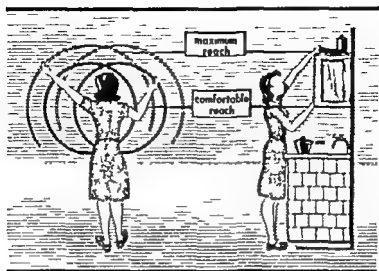


FIGURE 10-12 Stretching is Fatiguing

Adapted from Post, H. and E. L. in S. L. U.S. Dept. of Agriculture
Washington, PA 186, 1951

General principles of effective management of large kitchen and laundry equipment are given in the Research section above. Similar principles related to storage areas are ⁵³

- 1) Storage of apparatus and supplies at the place of first use
- 2) Duplication of inexpensive materials and equipment needed in more than one place
- 3) Placing of all materials and equipment used in a single type of process in general area in which the process is to be carried on
- 4) Storage of items so they are easy to see, easy to reach, and easy to grasp, e.g. place only identical items behind others

QUESTIONS LEADING TO CLASS II CHANGES

1. Is major equipment close together and in correct sequence? For example, in a kitchen, the stove followed by a serving surface should be near a dining area, whether it is dining room, dinette, or a corner of the kitchen.
2. Are working surfaces convenient in height and width?

⁵³ Cowles et al. op cit. p. 172. R. Steidl, *Work Before and After Addition of Functional Storage Devices in Home Kitchens*, Cornell Univ. Agr. Exp. Sta. Bull. 969, Oct. 1961, p. 3.



Functional Kitchen Storage

Note narrow shelves and section on castors with cutback shelves which provide good visibility and easy accessibility

From M. K. H. and H. E. H. Callaghan, F. C. I. A. I. Storage Council, University of Agriculture, E. p. St. Bull. 846, 1949. First published in the Agricultural Information Bulletin, February 1946.

only the accustomed result is the desirable one. If they themselves are venturesome they may fear the ridicule of a husband, an adolescent child or the neighbors. Even so slight a change as from a round to a square biscuit brings questioning in the minds of women long familiar with the circular shape. Nevertheless cutting twenty-five round biscuits with a biscuit cutter requires a minimum of twenty-five motions; cutting the same number of squares requires just eight motions—four vertical cuts with a knife and four horizontal ones. Eight slices of head lettuce to serve as a base for a fruit salad result in from eight to sixteen motions; eight lettuce cups made up of from eight to twenty-four large and small leaves require several times as many motions. But probably today all women have become accustomed to sliced instead of rolled cookies; many women use unironed sheets and dish towels and prefer plastic place mats to linen ones; most young girls wear no hose—all these are examples of work simplification through change in the finished product.

When the raw material with which one starts is different the finished product is not necessarily changed although it is likely to be. The use of prepared mixes for cakes, gingerbread, muffins, waffles and other doughs and batters may or may not give different finished products. They obviously save many motions. This example however is somewhat like the Class II type of change in that it may be expensive in money. Nevertheless other examples of Class III changes do not involve additional money costs. The self-polishing wax and the Swiss chard mentioned earlier are no more expensive than the wax which requires polishing or the spinach which they replace.

There has been very little research done in studying Class III changes. The authors know of no study of household tasks specifically done on this class of change. It is easy to see however that it brings great reductions in time and motions—hence research is less necessary. The square biscuit analyzed above indicates a minimum reduction of seventeen motions on twenty-five biscuits.

QUESTIONS LEADING TO CLASS III CHANGES

Because these changes are more drastic than those of a lower order it takes a higher degree of inventiveness to think them out for oneself. Probably the most that can be urged to stimulate inventions here is to look with a friendly eye upon as many different products as possible. Questions to ask on this class of change are such as

1. Do you automatically reject a new product without trials?
2. Are you willing to try new ideas even if uncertain of results?
3. Do you make use of methods that were suggested by emergencies such as continuing in use unironed sheets and bath towels after using them during

- a period of illness or of other increased demands on your time?
- 4 Do you read women's magazines with an eye to new ideas for changing raw materials or finished products?
 - 5 Do you discuss these types of shortcuts with neighbors and friends?
 - 6 Do you watch for new products in food, clothing, fabrics, and equipment as you shop for familiar items?
 - 7 Do you evaluate the advantages of a new product in relation to its cost?

SUMMARY

Management of the two interrelated resources of time and energy blends into work simplification. This may be defined as accomplishing more work with a given amount of time or energy, or as reducing the amount of time or energy or both to accomplish a given amount of work.

Although the movement has been fostered by industry, it has many applications in the home, either to free the homemaker's work time for other usages, or to enable her to fit time or energy or both to demands upon them.

Research techniques have come from industry. They consist of film analysis for most accurate results, but also of the simpler methods of process charts, operation charts, and pathway flow charts.

Research studies of household activities come largely from state agricultural experiment stations. They may be grouped into studies of specific tasks such as bedmaking, cleaning, laundering, food preparation, dish washing, and studies of work and storage areas. There are also combination studies.

Changes in performance of work in the interest of work simplification can be grouped into three classes. They are as follows, from the least to the most fundamental and far reaching: (I) body positions and motions and sequence of work; (II) tools, equipment, and work arrangement; (III) product. Principles and illustrations underlying each class were offered in the chapter. Effectiveness and state of development of the various classes were compared.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

Group Problems

Method for all group problems. When making observations of household work, a minimum of four persons beside the performer is needed: one to make a process chart (see pp. 283-284), one to make a pathway chart (see pp. 286-287), one to count motions of the right hand, and one to count motions of the left hand. The accuracy of the findings is much greater, however, if there can be at least two

persons assigned to each phase of the observation particularly to the counting of motions. It is necessary that a motion be defined ahead of time so that there be agreement on the count. A hand motion may be defined as the gross activity from the grasp of an object to its release.

Careful records and charts should be kept with summaries as follows:

	PROCESS CHART				Motions		DISTANCE TRAVELLED
	Moves	Operations	Inspections	Delays	Left Hand	Right Hand	
	○	◯	◻	▽			
TRIAL							
I							
II							
III							

The time may or may not be recorded (except in Problem 3 where it is essential) but it should not be stressed. It is to be expected that a revised method will require more time when first tried than a familiar method.

Between trials the group should talk over possible improvements but during the actual working the performer should be set alone as far as possible unless she is omitting or changing a fundamental procedure.

PROBLEMS IN SIMPLIFICATION

1. Preparation of a menu including from three to six foods. It is possible to select a menu capable of being varied as to foods without materially changing methods of preparation and serving. For example for breakfast kinds of canned or frozen fruit and vegetable juices of breakfast cereals and of bread for toast can be varied. For luncheon kinds of sandwiches of cream soups of flavor in desserts of raw or canned fruits can be changed.

Whatever menu is selected it should be prepared at least twice on succeeding days the group having discussed improvements between trials. When the meal is ready to serve the kitchen should be in order. Records should be kept as indicated above—process charts, pathway charts and motions of right and left hands.

2. Setting a table and serving a real or simulated meal. The menu should include water and at least four foods preferably one of them a beverage served in a cup (like coffee). The food if imaginary should be brought in in the manner and at the time it would be served if real. For example hot soup must be served just before announcing the meal and the soup plates carried as though they contained hot soup. As with Problem 1 there should be a minimum of two trials. The advantage of simulating food at least for the first trial is that no time need elapse between the trials except what is necessary for discussion of improvement. Records should be kept as indicated above.

3 Making a bed

a One person as performer

The following bedding is suggested but the essential point is to use identical beds and bedding in all trials

1 mattress pad	1 pillow
2 sheets	1 pillow case
1 single blanket	1 bedspread

(1) Make bed by going from side to side with each cover

(2) Make bed by hospital method going around the bed once only⁵⁴

Two trials on each part are desirable but not essential if performer is reasonably skillful in bedmaking. Keep records as suggested above and compare the findings of parts (1) and (2). In this problem a time record is essential. Decide which method is preferable and save the records to use in part b below.

b Two persons working together making a bed

In this case a double set of observers is necessary one for each performer. A double set of preliminary records will result.

c Conclude the problem by comparing a and b as follows

Comparison of Making a Bed by One and by Two Workers

Number of Workers	PROCESS CHART RECORDS				HAND MOTIONS			DISTANCE TRAVELLED	LABOR TIME
	Moves	Operations	Inspections	Delays	Left	Right	Total		
	○	◯	□	▽					
One									
Two									

Note the possible difference between labor time and clock time. For one performer they are the same. For two or more performers labor time is the sum of the clock time of each. Thus clock time of performer one 10 minutes of performer two 11 minutes 30 seconds labor time 21 minutes 30 seconds.

- Observe three different people dusting a group of three rooms. Compare their practices regarding routing, body motions, tools used and so on. Make suggestions for improvements in as many classes of change as possible.
- List as many strengths and weaknesses as possible in the performance of work in the case below and suggest one or more improvements to illustrate each class of change.

Mary is preparing a lunch for six persons to consist of noodle and tunafish casserole, shredded lettuce and tomato salad with French dressing, bread and butter, baked rhubarb sauce and milk.

⁵⁴Standard bedmaking techniques may be found in the current edition of the *American Red Cross Home Nursing Text Book*.

Procedure Goes to refrigerator gets rhubarb goes to cupboard gets kettle in which to cook the noodles Sits at sink to prepare rhubarb Goes to cabinet for baking dish for rhubarb Puts rhubarb and sugar into baking dish and places in oven Places noodles on preparation table While water is heating gets out ingredients for white sauce and green pepper for flavor Drops some noodles into boiling water returns to table for more Prepares white sauce using measuring spoon to measure 5 tablespoons of butter and 5 tablespoons of flour Cuts green pepper Combines ingredients in casserole and places in oven Returns milk and butter to refrigerator and stacks used dishes at sink Gets materials for salad from refrigerator and salad plates from dish cupboard Arranges plates in semicircle around vegetable board on which lettuce is to be cut and tomatoes sliced Prepares salad gets milk and butter from refrigerator for table washes cooking utensils. Serves lunch

Suggested Form of Record

	Strengths	Weaknesses	Possible Improvement
Motions or sequence			
Tools or workplace			
Product			

Individual or Group Problems

Class I Changes

A Study of pathways

- 1 Clearing after a meal Remove to kitchen the dishes from the last course at dinner Show pathway on a floor plan Try at least one revised method showing new pathway in a different color on same floor plan
- 2 Putting away groceries Put away a large order of groceries showing pathway on a floor plan Show a revised method with pathway in a different color on same floor plan Describe all changes not visible from the pathway
- 3 Checking out or putting away laundry Check out or put away laundry showing pathway on a floor plan Show a revised method with pathway in a different color on same floor plan Describe all changes not visible from the pathway
- 4 Dressing in the morning Chart your own pathway from the moment you arise until fully dressed How much retracing did you do? Can you suggest improvements?
- 5 Packing a suitcase Pack a suitcase showing pathway from the time you obtain the suitcase until it is closed ready to take Show a revised method with pathway in a different color on same floor plan Describe all changes not visible from pathway

B Study of body motions

- 1 Dust four identical chairs Try different body positions and different uses of the hands on each Consciously use the left hand Draw a diagram to show method on each chair (Four diagrams in all) Practice the one considered most desirable to demonstrate in the group
- 2 Clean three similar small rugs with the vacuum cleaner Try a different pathway on each (a) lengthwise giving cleaner a quick lift at end of rug (b) crosswise and (c) diagonal Compare results as to ease of use of the cleaner and time required

C Production sequence

- 1 Omitting steps—dovetailing
 - a Put away all dishes silver and glassware from breakfast Collect dishes silver and glassware for luncheon and set table Record time for both putting away dishes and setting table In next trial so far as possible set table for luncheon without putting away any breakfast china glassware and silver that are needed for luncheon Put away dishes not needed and collect additional needed dishes Finish setting table Record total time Compare the times steps and motions required
 - b Compare the number of hand processes and motions required in making a cake by the conventional method with the all-in-one bowl method
- 2 Changing order without omitting any processes
 - a Clean a room or series of rooms by first using vacuum cleaner then dusting floors lastly dusting furniture and small objects Note appearance of room and see if any parts of the process need to be done over
 - b Clean the same room or series of rooms on another day using the following order dust small objects and furniture then dust floors lastly use vacuum cleaner Inspect as before to see if any parts need to be done over Compare times of the two trials

Class II Changes

A Selection and use of equipment

- 1 Dust a stairway on different days using
 - a Dustcloth
 - b Lambswool dusting tool
 - c Whisk broom (with rubber stair treads or stair carpet)
 - d Special vacuum cleaner or attachment
 - e Combination of any two listed above
 Compare body positions freedom of movement any fatigue due to weight of tool appearance of the stairs and of the worker
- 2 Clean a room using upright vacuum cleaner is compared with tank type
- 3 Clean the same three pieces of upholstered furniture on different days using
 - a Whisk broom
 - b Clothes brush
 - c Attachment on vacuum cleaner

Compare the time the appearance of the chairs the appearance of surrounding parts of the room and the ease of handling the tools

B Work and storage areas

- 1 Check on customary storage of cleaning materials and tools in relation to their accessibility where stored and their nearness to the place where used. Make suggestions for improvement.
- 2 Observe the dishing up of three or four hot foods for a meal. Where are the serving dishes and food placed? Make a diagram showing customary placement. Then if possible improve on practices and make a second diagram showing new arrangements pointing out improvements.
- 3 When paring vegetables and fruits such as potatoes carrots or apples, note work surfaces used and space arrangements of materials. Make a diagram showing the placing of each item such as unpared vegetable parings and pared vegetable. Devise an improved space arrangement and make a second diagram showing it. Explain the improvements.
- 4 Study space arrangements when setting up four or more individual salads consisting of several ingredients. Make a diagram showing arrangement on work surface of individual plates greens and other ingredients salad dressing and so forth. Work out an improved arrangement and show in a second diagram.
- 5 Study location of bedding when making up a bed with fresh linen. Try bedding in two or three different places in relation to the bed showing the placing in diagrams. Label the most desirable position with reasons for choice.
- 6 When clearing a table note differences in numbers of handling of dishes in the two trials. Note also the length of time the waitress was away from the table. Was the group more aware of her absence in one trial than in the other?
 - a Trial 1 Place soiled dishes in kitchen as usual. If possible have the group see this problem immediately after the meal and make suggestions for improvement.
 - b Trial 2 Work out a more satisfactory arrangement if possible considering (1) necessity of rehandling dishes in kitchen to rinse them before washing and (2) the order of washing.
- 7 Study of work space when setting up or caring for several bouquets of flowers. Make a diagram showing placing of all equipment used. If possible suggest improvements and have a second trial making a second diagram to show changes.

Class III Changes

A Changed finished product

- 1 Plan three or four pairs of comparable desserts using similar foodstuffs but requiring different amounts of work for example

Greater amount of work	Lesser amount of work
Fruit pie with cheese	Fresh fruit, cheese and crackers
- 2 Varying method of letter writing to family members
Write letters to your family varying method as given below but keeping

the content and length of the letters approximately the same Record the time spent in each of the variations listed Compare the time per letter

- a Write a letter with pen and ink to a member of your family or a close friend
- b Type another letter to another member of your family covering the same content and approximately the same in length
- c Type using carbon copies a third letter suitable to send to several members of your family or to several friends

3 Changing form of letter

Type two business letters identical in content but varying the form as suggested below Compare the time consumed in typing each letter Count the number of typing motions eliminated in form *b* Is form *b* acceptable to you? Would its adoption give significant savings in a large corporation?

- a Use traditional form with date complimentary close and signature at the right
 - b Use no indentations Each line including date line salutation complimentary close and signature starts at the left hand margin
- 4 Select two dress patterns suitable for the same occasion Compare the number of pieces for each dress and the *intricacy* of combining them (e.g. set in versus cap sleeves) Estimate the length of time it would take to construct the two dresses

5 Eliminating bric a brac

- a Count the number of items on your dresser top or pieces of bric a brac in your living room Dust the surface of the dresser (or tables etc.) and all the small accessories on them Record the time
- b Eliminate all accessories or bric a brac *unless they serve a specific purpose* in that location (such as an ash tray) Dust the dresser and the remaining accessories Compare with time spent dusting in *a*
- c Compare the attractiveness of the room under both conditions Does the room look less cluttered in *b* or does it look barren? Was some accessory which made a real aesthetic contribution eliminated? Was its contribution sufficient to justify the care it requires?

II Changed materials

- 1 Observe five materials in a bedroom that might be changed (in building a new home or refurnishing a room) as a part of work simplification Example white painted woodwork changed to light natural wood finish
- 2 Waxing a table
 - Wax two portions of a single table or two similar tables using two different types of wax Compare the time involved in applying the wax, allowance for drying and any polishing the energy used (your subjective evaluation) and the appearance of the two areas when finished
 - a Use liquid self polishing wax
 - b Use a paste wax
- 3 Compare the costs in time and energy of using paper napkins and linen napkins for family meals for one week Include the time of caring for

linen napkins between meals as well as laundry. Linen napkins should be used for several meals unless badly soiled.

- 4 Compare the time of preparation and cooking and the finished product when the following forms of a vegetable are used (the number of servings should remain constant)
 - a Canned green beans
 - b Frozen green beans
 - c Fresh green beans
- 5 Compare the time and energy costs of caring for lingerie made of different textile fibers or with different finishes. Do you notice any difference in the speed with which they soil? Record time spent in laundry drying and ironing (if needed) for garments of each fiber separately.

Various Classes of Change

- 1 Work out three improvements for each of the tasks listed each improvement illustrating a different class of change
 - a Preparing mashed potatoes
 - b Cutting out a blouse from a pattern
 - c Shopping for groceries for several days or a week
 - d Collecting and checking out laundry to send to a commercial laundry
 - e Cleaning a bathtub
 - f Arranging a centerpiece
 - g Packing a suitcase
- 2 Plan simplification of work in activities other than housekeeping including as many classes of change as possible
 - a For the homemaker
 - (1) Conducting church suppers
 - (2) Conducting rummage sales
 - (3) Picking Christmas packages
 - b For the college student
 - (1) Teaching a class in clothing construction
 - (2) Writing a term paper
 - (3) Working in a store for merchandising experience setting up displays
 - (4) Doing institutional work supervising a serving counter
- 3 A homemaker might logically approach the problem of simplifying her work through several different ways such as
 - a Using process or operation charts
 - b Applying the classes of change in planning what to do and how she will do her work
 - c Becoming motion minded

For which of the following tasks would you say each of the above is most suitable? Justify your choice.

 - a Doing weekly laundry for a family of six
 - b Getting dinner every day for a family which desires variety in their food
 - c Making three housedresses by the same pattern

- d Getting breakfast for a family which has the same menu every morning
- e Folding bath towels or dishtowels after they have been laundered
- 4 Collect cartoons illustrating different classes of change
- 5 Collect Household Hints from newspapers and magazines Classify them according to classes of change
- 6 Select the one class of change of most value in the home management residence course Develop an original example to illustrate this

Skill

- 1 List 10 or 15 activities which occur in the home rather frequently and which require some degree of skill
 - a Rate yourself as to the degree of skill which you have achieved in relation to each of these activities using the rating below
 - (1) Highly skilled (enjoy activity)
 - (2) Dextrous in activity (gain little pleasure from it)
 - (3) Average in skill
 - (4) Awkward
 - b If possible analyze those activities in which you rate yourself as highly skilled to see how you acquired this skill
 - c In which of these activities do you really need skill at present? For the future? How can you acquire it?

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- BARNES Ralph M *Motion and Time Study* 4th ed (New York Wiley 1958)
- COWLES M L STEELE S M and KISHLER M B Savings in Distance Walked in Kitchens Through Reorganization of Storage and Work Space *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 50 No 3 (March 1958) pp 169-174
- EASIER Housekeeping *Life Magazine* Vol XI (September 9 1946)
- EYRES Ruth A and WILEY Elizabeth W *A Motion Study on Laundry Arrangements* Wash Agr Exp Sta Circular 142 1951
- FITZSIMMONS C GOBLE E and MONHAUT G *Easier Ways* Purdue Univ Extension Bull 391 1953
- FRAZIER Ellen *Energy and Time Costs of Four Methods of Handling Clothes in Drying* Master's thesis Cornell University 1953
- GILBRETH Lillian M THOMAS Orpha Mae and CLYMER Eleanor *Management in the Home* (New York Dodd Mead and Company Revised 1959)
- GRAHAM Ben S *Work Simplification for Improved Business Controls* (Dayton 1 Ohio The Standard Register Co 1961)
- HEINER Mary A and McCULLOUGH Helen E *Functional Kitchen Storage* Cornell Univ Agr Exp Sta Bull 846 1948
- JOHNSTON Kathleen SMITH Ruth H and WISE Mary P *Space for Home Sewing* Pennsylvania Agr Exp Sta Bull 619 1957
- LA FRANCE, Ernest *Simplified Housework as Developed by Wayne State University Home Economics Department* (New York Birk 1955)
- MCCRACKEN E C and RICHARDSON M Human Energy Expenditures as Criteria for the Design of Household Storage Facilities *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 51 No 3 (March 1959) pp 198-206

Background for Money Management

Before one approaches the management of money it is well to understand certain background information relating to income and its use. For example, what does the term *income* itself mean? Is there more than one kind of income? How can one compare incomes? How much income do families have? How much income should a family have? Is there objective evidence of how families use their incomes? If so, how can this information be used by individual families?

In the present chapter basic concepts such as real income, direct and indirect income, psychic income, total income, and minimum adequacy are defined. Income distribution figures are presented for the population as a whole and in relation to the life cycle, to the occupation of the breadwinner, and to the size of the family. From this information an individual or family may see possible trends and compare their situation with that of others. Lastly, patterns of use of income as affected by size of income, stage in the life cycle, occupation, and location are presented. Some of these patterns are based on actual expenditures, while others are the result of the studied opinions of experts. In either case, the patterns of use of income are given to provoke thought and not to imply that families should fit themselves into a mold.

CONCEPTS OF INCOME

Most people, if asked the amount of their income, would answer in terms of their annual salary or the average weekly wage in money. Probably this would be the answer expected by the person asking the question. Although only money income, it may be an incomplete picture of that since many people receive money from interest on investments, gifts, and so forth, in addition to their earnings.

- MUNDEL Marvin E *Systematic Time and Motion Study* (Englewood Cliffs N.J., Prentice Hall 1947)
- WEAVER Elaine Knowles BLOOM C. E. and FELDMILLER, I *A Study of Hand Versus Mechanical Dishwashing* Ohio Agr Exp Sta Research Bull 772 May 1956
- WILEY Elizabeth W *A Motion Study of Kitchen Arrangements* Wash Agr Exp Sta Bull 518 1950
- WILSON M ROBERTS E H and THAYER, R *Standards for Working-Surface Heights and Other Space Units of the Dwelling* Wash Agr Exp Sta Bull 345 1937

SUPPLEMENTARY BIBLIOGRAPHY FOR WORK WITH HANDICAPPED HOMEMAKERS

- BEVACQUA Katherine M GERHOLD Marilyn Q RIEPL Ruth H *Sewing and Housecleaning Units for Cardiac Homemakers* College of Home Economics Research Publication 175 Penn State Univ 1960
- The Heart of the Home* American Heart Association New York.
- Home Economists in Rehabilitation *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 50 No 9 (November 1958)
- Bricker June Planning for Rehabilitation Service pp 701-702
- Judson Julia The Team Approach pp 702-704
- May Elizabeth Child Care Problems of Physically Handicapped Mothers pp 704-706
- Wiese Eleanor V Food Preparation Problems pp 706-707
- McCULLOUGH Helen E and FARNHAM Mary B *Space and Design Requirements for Wheel-chair Kitchens* Ill Agr Exp Sta Bull 661 1960
- Proceedings of Workshop on Rehabilitation of the Disabled Homemaker* July 28 1961 (13100 Puritan Detroit Michigan Heart Association)
- RISK Howard A et al *A Manual for Training the Disabled Homemaker* Rehabilitation Monograph VIII Second Edition (New York Institute of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation N Y University Bellevue Medical Center 1961)
- School of Home Economics University of Connecticut *Bulletins* Home Economics Research Center Storrs Connecticut
- #2 *You Can Do Family Laundry with Hand Limitations*
- #4 *Child Care Equipment for Physically Handicapped Mothers*
- Bibliography on Home Management with Emphasis on Work Simplification for Handicapped Homemakers*
- ZMOLA Gertrude Steps to Aid Handicapped Women in Homemaking *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 50 No 10 (December 1958) pp 790-791

Background for Money Management

Before one approaches the management of money it is well to understand certain background information relating to income and its use. For example, what does the term *income* itself mean? Is there more than one kind of income? How can one compare incomes? How much income do families have? How much income should a family have? Is there objective evidence of how families use their incomes? If so, how can this information be used by individual families?

In the present chapter basic concepts such as real income, direct and indirect income, psychic income, total income, and minimum adequacy are defined. Income distribution figures are presented for the population as a whole and in relation to the life cycle, to the occupation of the breadwinner, and to the size of the family. From this information an individual or family may see possible trends and compare their situation with that of others. Lastly, patterns of use of income as affected by size of income, stage in the life cycle, occupation, and location are presented. Some of these patterns are based on actual expenditures, while others are the result of the studied opinions of experts. In either case, the patterns of use of income are given to provoke thought and not to imply that families should fit themselves into a mold.

CONCEPTS OF INCOME

Most people, if asked the amount of their income, would answer in terms of their annual salary or the average weekly wage in money. Probably this would be the answer expected by the person asking the question. Although only money income is may be an incomplete picture of that, since many people receive money from interest on investments, gifts, and so forth, in addition to their earnings.

Types of Income Defined

REAL INCOME

Real income is defined by economists as a flow of commodities and services available for the satisfaction of human wants and needs over a given period of time. Three important ideas in this definition are: first, that income is a flow of economic goods as opposed to an accumulation; second, that it is composed of commodities and services whether they are obtained by purchase or by other means; and lastly, that in order to see a particular income in perspective it is necessary to know what period of time is involved, whether a month, a year, or a lifetime.

Direct Income Real income is made up of two major types: direct and indirect. Direct income consists of those material goods and services available to the family members without the use of money. Examples include commodities such as products of flower and vegetable gardens and fuel cut on the family woodlot as well as services. These services include those of the homemaker who cares for family members, prepares food, and cleans the house, and those of other family members such as those of the father who makes car repairs, the son who mows the lawn, or the daughter who does family laundry. Still other examples of direct income include the use of a home which is fully paid for. Although there are costs of maintenance, they are lower than the rental price of a similar home. The difference between the two represents direct income. Another source of direct income is free or social income provided by the community. Library facilities, parks, schools, roads, fire protection, and police protection are commodities and services which families could not ordinarily provide for themselves.

Indirect Income Indirect income consists of those material goods and services which are available to the family only after some means of exchange, ordinarily money, has been obtained. The commodities and services which are purchased with money range from cigarettes to cars, and from the services of a bellboy to the services of a medical specialist. Infrequently a commodity or a service is traded or bartered for another. For example, neighbors may give each other home improvements and students sometimes trade textbooks at the beginning of a new term.

PSYCHIC INCOME

Psychic income consists of the satisfaction which persons derive from their real income. Psychic income is purely subjective and up to the present no attempt has been made to measure it. However, differences in

Psychic Income!

EVERYDAY MOVIES •

By Denys Wortman



This fire escape is worth a million dollars but don't mention it to our landlord

psychic income are readily observable. It is closely related to one's standard of living and to the appreciations one has developed. If individual *A* actually possesses the commodities and services he considers essential, he will be satisfied, and the psychic income from those commodities will be high for the individual. On the other hand *B*, whose standard of living is different, may get either higher or lower psychic income from the same commodity or service. For example, one person whose standard of living includes several imported tweed suits receives less psychic income from an

additional one than the woman who has never had a garment of imported tweed before. On the other hand, some appreciations are developed through repetition. The person with a large record collection of classical music may enjoy each record more with each time he hears it played.

The relationships among the various types of real, direct and indirect income, along with their sources, are shown in the chart below.

- I Real Income—all material goods and services
 - A Direct—economic goods available from the following sources without use of money
 - 1 Material goods produced at home
 - 2 Services provided by family members
 - 3 Use value of owned durable goods
 - 4 Free or social income
 - B Indirect—economic goods available to family through media of exchange such as
 - 1 Money
 - 2 Barter
- II Psychic Income—satisfaction derived from all material goods and services

TOTAL INCOME

Total income (excluding psychic income) consists of real income and in addition that part of money income which has not been turned into economic goods and so is not a part of real income. This additional money income may be assigned to three different uses: payment of taxes, savings for the future, or gifts to persons outside the family. This is shown graphically in Figure 11.1.

Measuring Real Income

To people accustomed to the use of the term income as synonymous with the amount of money available, the idea that food, clothing, and other commodities and services provided by family members add to income is hard to grasp. However, money is freed to purchase other commodities and services when some are obtained without the use of money, thus increasing the total commodities and services available to the family.

The concept of real income is a recognition of the contribution to the family made by resources other than money and includes the use of family time, energy, abilities, and also community resources. Money income is the commonly used concept because of the ease of comparing incomes on this basis and the importance of money in our economy. Real income is more accurate in showing what a family has, but it is considerably more difficult to measure in objective terms.

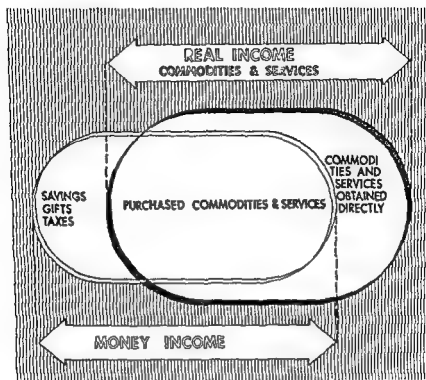


FIGURE 11.1 Total Income

VALUE OF CONSUMPTION AS AN INDEX

Recently an attempt has been made by the Consumer and Food Economics Division of the Agricultural Research Service to describe the level of living of families more accurately than in the past when annual expenditures were the major index used. This more inclusive measure of the level of living or the value of consumption covers the value of 1) the family's annual expenditures for nondurable goods and services; 2) food and fuel produced by the family; 3) clothing made by family members; 4) goods and services received as gifts or pay; and 5) one year's use value of the family home and its furnishings and equipment, of stocks of clothing and of cars and trucks used by the family. Not included in the value of consumption are public services such as public education, police and fire protection, or free medical service.¹

¹ Mary Jane Ellis, "Value of Consumption: An Improved Measure of the Level of Living," *Family Economics Review*, June 1961, pp. 5-8.

The difference between expenditures and the value of consumption can be expressed as a ratio derived for each category by dividing the value of consumption by the expenditures. A ratio of 100 indicates that the value of consumption and expenditures coincide. Ratios greater than 100 indicate that the value of consumption is greater than expenditures and ratios under 100 show the reverse. When expenditures are higher than value of consumption in categories involving durable goods families are building up inventories and are making possible a higher level of living in the future. Conversely a low ratio indicates that families are depleting their stocks. From the results of studies in two geographic areas the following tentative generalizations may be drawn. In general annual expenditures tend to understate the level of living more among low income families than those with higher incomes among farm families more than nonfarm families among small families more than large families among older families more than younger families and among white families more than nonwhite families.

MONEY VALUE OF SELECTED TYPES OF DIRECT INCOME

Commodities Produced at Home In placing a monetary value on commodities produced at home several possibilities must be considered. One may use the wholesale price or the amount of money the family would have gained had they sold the produce rather than retaining it for their own use or the value may be based on the retail price which the family would have paid had they bought it in the open market. A third possibility is a cross between the two. To be completely accurate costs of production must be subtracted from the value of the produce to determine the extent to which real income has been increased. The following cartoon illustrates that not all household production adds to real income if production costs in money time energy and materials are unreasonably high or if the quality of the product is unsatisfactory.

Use Value of Owned Home There are two methods for determining the extent to which owning one's home adds to real income. The simplest method has already been suggested. The costs of renting a similar house are determined then the annual costs of maintenance are subtracted. The difference between the two figures represents real income. The use value does not appear however until the home is completely owned since payments on a mortgage plus maintenance costs would ordinarily be greater rather than less than the costs of renting.

Use value may also be stated as the sum of one year's depreciation and the annual interest foregone. In this method an attempt is made to

Amount of Direct Income May Vary with Quality of Product



"There! That saves us about 50 bucks!"

Saturday Evening Post

measure how much of the value of the house has been used up in a year. Depreciation is found by dividing the original cost of a durable item by the number of years of its life expectancy. For a house this is usually considered to be fifty years, so that depreciation is figured as 2 per cent of the original value. The purchase of a home is the largest single investment made by most families. Had they invested this money otherwise it would probably have earned interest, thus increasing money income. Therefore in a particular year the family would have used up 2 per cent of the original cost plus the interest they would have received had the principal been invested in interest bearing securities.

In general, the two methods of determining use value of a home should

**TABLE 11.1 Distribution of Family Incomes for the United States—
1947-1960 (in current dollars)**

Income Level	Percentages of Families		
	1960	1955	1947
Under \$3000	22	29	49
\$3000-\$4999	20	30	31
\$5000-\$9999	44	35	17
\$10 000-\$14 999	10	5	(3
\$15 000 and over	4	1	(
Median income	\$5 620	\$4 421	\$3 031

Based on *Current Population Reports: Consumer Income*, Bureau of the U. S. Census, Series P 60 No. 37 (Jan. 1962), Table B, p. 3.

decided upward trend is apparent in the most recent period. The proportion of families in the lowest income bracket (under \$3000) decreased from 49 to 22 per cent in the 13 year period between 1947 and 1960. In 1947 only 3 per cent had more than \$10 000; in 1960 this proportion had grown to 14 per cent. Even when these two periods are compared in constant dollars based on 1960 dollars, there were 33 per cent with incomes under \$3000 and only 6 per cent with incomes over \$10 000 in 1947.⁵

The question arises about the bracket in which a family is likely to find itself. Income distribution figures based on location of the family, age of the breadwinner, stage in the life cycle, occupation, and size and composition of the family are helpful in answering the point in question. The first three factors have been considered in earlier chapters.⁶

Effect of Occupation

The effect of occupation is shown in Table 11.2. Over half of those families in which the head was a self-employed professional or technical worker and two-fifths of those headed by a salaried manager, an official or a proprietor had incomes over \$10 000. On the other hand, salaried professional workers had only one chance in three and self-employed managers, proprietors and officials had only one chance in four of having an income of over \$10 000. One-fifth of the families of sales workers had incomes over \$10 000. Three out of four families of private household

⁵ *Current Population Reports: Consumer Income*, Series P 60 No. 37 (January 17, 1962), Table E, p. 4.

⁶ See p. 157 for age of breadwinner and stage of the life cycle and p. 207-209 for location of family.

TABLE 11 2. Distribution of Family Incomes by Occupation of Family Heads at Selected Income Levels for the U S , 1960

<i>Occupation of Family Head</i>	<i>Per cent earning under \$3000</i>	<i>Per cent earning \$10,000 and over</i>	<i>Median income</i>
Professional technical and kindred workers			
self-employed	8 3	54 2	\$11 014
salaried	3 0	32 0	8 124
Farmers and farm managers	53 4	4 8	2 803
Managers officials and proprietors except farm			
self employed	19 1	24 9	11 188
salaried	2 2	42 3	9 186
Clerical and kindred workers	7 7	12 0	5 934
Sales workers	7 9	21 3	6 977
Craftsmen foremen and kindred workers	6 8	13 8	5 660
Operatives and kindred workers	11 3	7 8	5 700
Private household workers	78 5	0 5	1 765
Service workers except household	22 0	7 9	4 939
Farm laborers and foremen	58 1	3 2	2 493
Laborers except farm and mine	27 9	4 1	4 393

Derived from Current Population Reports: Consumption Income U S Bureau of the Census
P-40 No. 37 (January 17, 1962) Table B, p. 30

workers and nearly three fifths of farm laborers or foremen had incomes under \$3000. For farmers and farm managers farm laborers and foremen and private household workers the median income for each occupational group as a whole fell below \$3000.

Effect of Size and Composition of Family

Recognizing that it costs more to provide a given level of consumption for a large family than for a small one,¹ a person immediately questions whether or not large families have higher incomes than do small ones. In 1960 the median size of family in the United States was 3.3 persons.

If one considers the size of family for each income bracket the median size of family ranged from 2.39 persons in the income group from \$1 000 \$1 499 to 3.89 persons in the bracket from \$15 000 \$24 999.²

¹ See Chapter 1, p. 201.

² Current Population Reports on p. cit. Table 1, p. 21.

level of living were made more explicit although no basic changes in concept were made. In both the earlier and the 1959 versions the budget relates to a family of four including an employed father age 38 the full time homemaker and two children a girl of eight and a boy aged 13 who live in a rented dwelling in a large city or its suburbs. The budget includes only expenditures and therefore includes savings only as these take the form of insurance premiums. The budget was designed to estimate the dollar amount required to maintain such a family at a level of adequate living according to prevailing standards of what is needed for health efficiency the nurture of children and for participation in social and community activities.¹¹

Over twenty five years earlier Kyrk¹ listed three general criteria for determining commodities to be included and the quantities needed for minimum adequacy in America. Her criteria while quite similar to those stated in this recent City Workers Family Budget specifically included some facilities for education recreation and provision for the future. These needs are provided for in the budget items but it appears worth while to state them explicitly.

It is only in degree that minimum adequacy differs in some respects from higher levels of living. Since most states require that children attend school until they are 16 years old it can be assumed that at least two years of high school is considered essential for the normal child. The Federal Old Age and Survivors Insurance program with its ever widening coverage is evidence that some provision for the future is deemed necessary. Such a program could never have been put into effect until a large proportion of the population considered it so.

It is admittedly difficult to determine what should be included in minimum adequacy. Not only may the beliefs of the people formulating the budgets differ but the items included will change from time to time due to increased scientific knowledge the appearance of new commodities changes in distribution and level of income the location of the family and in the productive power of the nation.¹² If such an investigation is linked to wage setting labor and management may differ widely in their ideas of what should be included. Today citrus fruits and tomatoes are a part of minimum food requirements based on research while at the turn of the century they were considered a luxury. By 1960 over

¹¹ Helen H. Lamale and Margaret S. Stotz "The Interim City Workers Family Budget" *Monthly Labor Review* Vol. 83 No. 8 (August 1960) p. 78.

¹ Hazel Kyrk *op cit* p. 200.

¹² Helen H. Lamale "Changes in Concepts of Income Adequacy over the Last Century" *The American Economic Review* Vol. 48 No. 2 (May 1958) Papers and Proceedings of the Seventieth Annual Meeting of the American Economic Association Philadelphia Dec. 28-30 1957 p. 291.

86 per cent of American families owned a television set something which did not exist in 1900

The differences in costs between the earlier budget last priced in 1951 and the 1959 budget reflect both a rise in prices between the two periods and a rise in the actual level of living considered essential. The total cost of goods and services for 1959 is approximately 40 per cent higher than for these same cities in 1951 with some variation from city to city. More than half of this change represents the increase in the standard of living which has occurred during the postwar period.¹⁴

The items included in the Interim City Worker's Budget were based on two factors. Scientific knowledge where available was used as the starting point. Consumer choices as determined in a postwar consumption study were used first to modify scientific requirements in order to show customary practices and second to determine the standard when no scientific requirements were available.

Scientific information is most nearly complete for food needs. Widely accepted standards for housing are also in existence. The food component was based on the low and moderate cost food plans of the U S D A which were based on 1955 consumption study data and checked with the 1958 National Research Council's recommended nutritional allowances. Regional patterns of food usage were recognized in the foods included. The number of meals bought and eaten away from home was increased from 189 in the earlier budget to 212. This reflects a change in the eating habits of families. Housing for this family meets standards established by the American Public Health Association and the U S Public Housing Administration.

On the other hand there are no scientific standards for clothing and the remaining budget categories. It is recognized that psychological and sociological rather than physiological factors are of prime importance for many items. Postwar consumer practices were used to determine the budget level in such cases. For example widespread use of health insurance resulted in the inclusion in the budget of a family membership in a group hospitalization plan. While the method of determining the level of consumer spending to be included is very complex its general base is simply stated. The amounts of a particular commodity or service bought at various income levels were charted. The point at which consumers did not increase the amounts bought in proportion to the increase in their income was used as the budget level for that commodity. This method is based on the assumption that if families continue to increase the quantities of an item as income increases it is evidence of urgent unfilled

¹⁴ Helen H. Lamale and Margaret S. Stotz. *The Interim City Worker's Family Budget*. op cit p 786

needs. It further assumes that this is the point at which increased quality supersedes increased quantity in importance. In the areas of clothing and durable goods the data represent replacement rates based on average inventories.

City Worker's Family Budget—an example

Some of the details of the budget which illustrate its level are given below. The budget provides for rental of a five room apartment or house with modern plumbing and heating facilities, a gas or electric range, a mechanical refrigerator and a washing machine. As an example of clothing expenditures, the woman buys a heavy wool coat every four years, a wool or rayon suit every other year, between three and four dresses including house dresses, and about three pairs of shoes annually. The 1959 budget shows clothes for more casual occasions and more emphasis is placed on synthetic fabrics than in the earlier budget.

The modest nature of the budget is indicated by the recreational items included. The family takes a daily newspaper, spends \$14.75 for magazines, and buys one book annually. Children attend the movies twice as often as the adults, the son about thirty-eight times a year. The family owns a radio, a television set, and a telephone. The two latter items were not included in the earlier budget.

It must be remembered that the budget represents combinations of choices which families make. It suggests the general level of purchases for each category, but still allows many choices. For example, in the transportation section, costs are given for families with cars and without cars, but the total for transportation is based on a weighted average of the two groups. Obviously, if families with cars are to stay within the limits of the budget for their community, it will be necessary to lower costs by simplifying elsewhere. On the other hand, if they maintain the level of living described in the other categories of the budget and maintain a car, the total cost of the budget will rise.

In fall 1959, the cost of the budget, including taxes and occupational expenses, ranged from \$5370 in Houston, Texas, to \$6567 in Chicago. One of the valid uses of the budget, since it is stated in commodities and their quantities, is for a group to reprice it in a given place at a given time to determine what the level of living described in the budget costs at that time and place. Another, less accurate method for bringing costs up-to-date in periods between official government pricing is to adapt the figures using the Consumer Price Index, published monthly by the Department of Labor Statistics, and showing relative changes from the base year for more than seventeen categories.

PATTERNS OF USE OF INCOME

Pictures or patterns of income use are based on averages of large groups of people and therefore disguise many wide differences among families. Nevertheless for an individual who has no idea how other people use their incomes and who has not the time energy or inclination to do a lengthy investigation of the matter such information may be helpful. The danger in distributing such figures is that readers may assume that they represent the proportions which *should* be spent on various categories. Dr Robert Seashore however stressed the usefulness of such information when he discussed the psychological aspects of management with a home management committee preparing for the National Conference on Family Life. He said

When people ask us what per cent of the income should be spent for the various items of living the (scientific) method is to get them to arrive at their own percentages after considerable study a quicker method is to give them a range of percentages (as 15 to 20 per cent) and give them some factors to consider in deciding on the lower middle and upper range

No family should feel that it must force itself into a pattern or that it will ever be able to find a pattern which fits it exactly. Income expenditure patterns can however be used as a basis for comparison with other families. If a family is dissatisfied with what they are getting from their money and they discover that they spend an unusually large proportion for clothing family members might consider the following question. Is there a logical explanation which shows they need more numerous items or more expensive clothing than the average family? If so how can they offset this unusual drain? If there is no such explanation the family members may decide to change their clothing expenditure pattern. Patterns of use of income highlight the fact that on a given income level a family spending a larger than usual proportion for one category either cuts elsewhere or goes in debt.

Common Basis Important in Comparison

When comparing expenditures data from various sources it is important that the same base is used for percentages and that items in the various categories are comparable. The phrase use of income covers income used for savings taxes and gifts as well as expenditures for current consumption. If the total income used in these ways is greater than current income either savings have been used or the family has incurred some debt in the period under consideration. Data described as percent

MANAGEMENT APPLIED TO SPECIFIC RESOURCES

ages of expenditures do not show savings gifts or taxes and therefore provide a less complete picture of the financial situation of families. In the following discussion the base for the figures will be indicated.

Table 11-4 shows the effect upon percentage distribution from the same data when based on four different totals. Column 2 of the table illustrates the term use of income and column 5 shows the pattern of expenditure. Since income and expenditures were not balanced when the data were collected what appears to be an average deficit of 6 per cent in

TABLE 11-4 Percentage Distribution of Family Expenditures Based on Varying Totals All U S Urban Families of 2 or More Persons 1930*

Categories	Dollar amounts	Percentage Distributions			
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Money income before taxes					
Money income after taxes	\$4574	100			
Total expenditures for current consumption gifts and contributions personal insurance	4224		100		
	4178			100	
Gifts and contributions					
Personal insurance	165	4	4	4	
Total expenditures for current consumption	195	4	5	4	
Food and beverages	4118	(90)	(97)	(92)	100
Housing fuel light refrigeration	1288	28	30	29	31
Other household operations	627	14	15	14	13
Furnishings and equipment	191	4	5	4	3
Clothing and clothing services	290	6	7	6	7
Transportation	476	10	11	11	12
Medical care	559	12	13	12	14
Personal care	215	5	5	5	3
Recreation reading education	92	2	2	2	2
Miscellaneous and tobacco	247	5	6	6	6
Personal taxes	134	3	3	3	3
Negative savings *	350	8			
	-254	-6	-6		

Data and figure will not necessarily add to total because of rounding

Adapted from Period of Conference on Living Expenses and the Role of the Family in the Management of the Home Economics Association, Washington, D.C., June 29-30, 1938. Table 2, pp. 11-14. Original Source of Data: National School of Finance and Commerce, Study of Consumer Expenditure and Savings, Vol. XIII, pp. 23.

* Not that "other money receipt" such as inheritances and large gifts of money are not included in income. Also, income likely to be less if they reported the family expenditure.

column 2 may be due to methods used in the study. A rough comparison of the figures from the consumer survey made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in 1950 with aggregate figures from the Department of Commerce suggests considerable underreporting of incomes from interest dividends and rent and that expenditures are understated less often than income. However in comparison with aggregate data expenditures on tobacco alcoholic beverages and estimates of savings are understated in the 1950 survey of consumer expenditures¹⁵

Effect of Size of Income

Size of money income is probably the most important single factor in determining the pattern of how that income will be used. When studying such figures however an individual family should keep a number of points in mind. First there is nothing wrong in deviating from the pattern particularly if the family is satisfied with what they are getting for their money. Second if the family deviates from the pattern the reason may be easily understood in the light of factors discussed in earlier chapters. For example a large family will no doubt spend a larger proportion of their income on food than a two-person family with the same income.

As income increases the proportion of expenditures for items *other* than food housing and clothing increases significantly (see Table 11.5). This is true between historical periods as well as at a given point in time. In 1901 43 per cent of the incomes of all families was used for food in 1950 only 31 per cent was spent on this category. This decrease in percentage spent for food occurred despite increases in food prices between the two periods and the fact that more food was purchased away from home in the latter period¹⁶. At each income level in 1950 the proportion spent for food was larger than for any other category decreasing from 36 per cent for families with incomes between \$1000 and \$2000 to 25 per cent for families with incomes of \$10 000 and over. (See Table 11.7 on page 354.)

A graphic representation of changes in spending and saving by wage earner and clerical families of two or more persons at different income levels in 1950 is shown in Figure 11.2. The proportion for food and shelter (housing plus fuel light and refrigeration) in 1950 accounted for about 55 per cent of expenditures in the lowest income class shown and just over 40 per cent in the highest income group shown. The decline is both

¹⁵ *Study of Consumer Expenditures Incomes and Savings* Vol. XVIII Wharton School of Finance and Commerce University of Pennsylvania 1957 p. xv

¹⁶ U. S. Dept. of Labor *How American Buying Habits Change* U. S. Government Printing Office 1959 pp. 110-112

TABLE 11-5 Expenditures for Items Other Than Food, Clothing and Shelter Purchased by Urban Families in the United States as a Percentage of Total Expenditure for Current Consumption, 1950 at Different Income Levels

<i>Income Level</i>	<i>Per cent of Total Expenditure Used for Items Other than Food, Clothing and Shelter*</i>
Under \$1000	32.94
\$1000 - \$2000	32.75
\$2000 - \$3000	37.39
\$3000 - \$4000	40.57
\$4000 - \$5000	42.62
\$5000 - \$6000	43.58
\$6000 - \$7500	44.41
\$7500 - \$10,000	44.26
\$10,000 and over	47.90

Derived from Table 10, p. 28, *Consumer Marketing Bulletin II: Economic Information for Commerce and Retailing*, prepared by the American Economic Association, Iowa State University Cooperative Extension Service, May 1961. Original source of data: Study of Consumer expenditures, incomes and savings, Vol. XVII, University of Pennsylvania.

* Includes household expenditures on other than food, clothing and shelter.

smooth and steady. Proportions for medical care, tobacco and personal care decreased with a rising level of income, while automobile ownership and operation, recreation and alcoholic beverages took an increasing proportion of total expenditures as incomes rose. Except for the two lowest income groups shown, clothing also increased with increasing incomes.

The authors summarize the changes:

As workers have obtained added buying power they have usually decided to raise their food consumption level in some degree (though not the proportion in relation to total expenditures) to improve their housing facilities somewhat to add a bit to their savings and in other ways to make a complex series of adjustments. This is especially true in periods of rapidly rising real income. It is the very complexity of such choices and resultant in terms of consumption that make periodic expenditure surveys necessary for keeping up with changes in patterns of consumption. In comparison with various items for which expenditures are much more elastic in response to changes in buying power food and clothing and shelter thus retain much significance as a point of departure for appraising advances in well-being.¹⁷

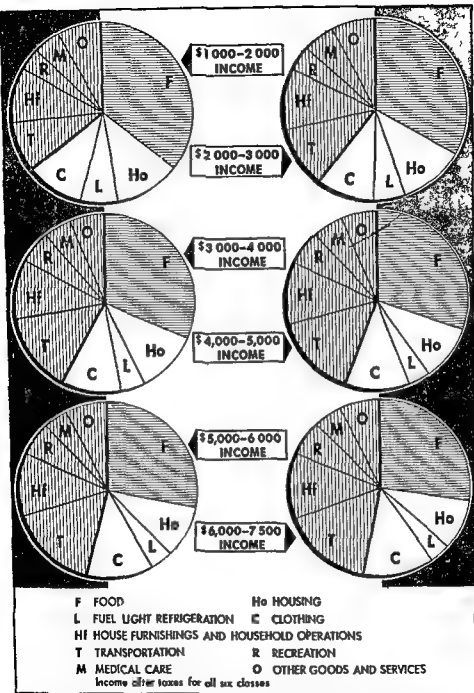


FIGURE 112 How Urban Wage Earners and Clerical Worker Families of 2 or More at Selected Income Levels Divided Their Expenditures for Current Consumption in 1950

The effect of increased income upon savings apparently does not appear until some urgent needs are met. From an analysis of savings in the United States from 1897 to 1952 a period in which dollars of constant purchasing power almost tripled it was concluded that

The average household must have an ever increasing nominal or real disposable income per head before it does any saving or to put it differently an increasing level of real consumption has been necessary throughout the past half century to elicit the same proportion of savings.¹⁸

Increases in income may be handled differently depending upon the income level of the family and the categories concerned. Families in very low income brackets may use an increase to purchase larger quantities of items they consider necessities with the addition of some variety. Middle income families are more likely to use an increase in income to provide better quality food and more services along with increased expenditures on nonfood items such as housing recreation and education. Among high income families an increase in income is reflected in increased expenditures for luxury items.¹⁹

Tables 11-6 and 11-7 show data from the same survey on which Table 11-4 was based. In this case the data are classified according to income levels. The percentages in Table 11-7 are based on total expenditures for current consumption.

The Interim City Worker's Budget which has been discussed in some detail is chiefly a pattern of expenditures at a minimum adequate level with the commodities and quantities held stable and the costs varying.

At intervals the Heller Committee for Research in Social Economics has priced commodity-quantity budgets for two occupational groups in San Francisco: a salaried junior professional and executive and a wage earner. The distribution of costs involved in these budgets for September 1961 is shown in Table 11-8. It is assumed that the former family owns its home. In the original publication costs for both home owners and renters are provided for the wage earner family. Table 11-8 shows the figures for a wage earner who rents his home. Although savings are not indicated these budgets are in reality patterns of use of income including taxes, gifts and contributions.

A study of the patterns of income use and of expenditures in these tables shows that in every instance food claims the largest proportion. This is true even when housing and household operation are combined.

¹⁸ Raymond W. Goldsmith *et al.* *Study of Saving in the United States* Vol. 1 (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press) 1955 p. 14.

¹⁹ Joseph Gartner and Lee Kolmer *Consumer Marketing Bulletin II Economic Information for Consumer Marketing Programs* (Ames, Iowa: Iowa State University Cooperative Extension Service May 1961) p. 20.

TABLE 11-6 Summary of Family Accounts—Average receipts and disbursements for major categories of family income, expenditure and change in assets and liabilities, by income class, Urban United States, 1950

Family Characteristics			Receipts			Disbursements								
	(in dollars)													
(1) Percent of families	(2) Age of family head	(3) Money income before taxes	(4) Money income after taxes	(5) Other money receipts	(6) Dividend income	(7) Increase in liabilities	(8) Total receipts	(9) Average balance sheet	(10) Total disbursements	(11) Current consumption expenditure	(12) Gifts and contributions	(13) Personal services	(14) Increase in assets	(15) Decrease in liabilities
All families	100.0	\$ 4257	\$ 3910	\$ 49	\$ 754	\$ 525	\$ 5237	\$ 1117	\$ 5354	\$ 3808	\$ 165	\$ 177	\$ 955	\$ 249
Families of 2 or more persons	86.5	4574	4224	54	802	587	5667	129	5796	4118	165	195	1039	279
Income class														
Under \$1000	6.3	628	614	30	1009	100	1759	41	1800	1278	31	91	576	63
\$1000-\$2000	12.3	1577	1532	25	452	169	2178	69	2247	1768	66	52	989	72
\$2000-\$3000	18.7	2659	2534	38	498	335	3404	111	3515	2718	31	107	453	145
\$3000-\$4000	24.0	3701	3487	36	527	519	4568	146	4714	3570	121	163	646	214
\$4000-\$5000	16.9	4796	4469	74	680	683	5899	155	6054	4450	164	204	939	297
\$5000-\$6000	9.5	5926	5449	91	864	865	7269	197	7366	5257	212	255	1306	367
\$6000-\$7000	6.4	7281	6618	33	1093	811	8584	90	8674	6043	270	300	1674	388
\$7500-\$10000	3.5	9350	8434	8	1493	843	10777	94	10871	7108	390	432	2524	417
\$10000 and over	2.4	18807	15914	120	3984	1308	21525	99	21424	10773	1165	708	7418	1360

Because family income is reported on a total basis, the total receipts and total disbursements are not necessarily equal. The difference between the two is due to the fact that families are not forced to balance their accounts with money income. Families with money income are not forced to balance their accounts with money income. Families with money income are not forced to balance their accounts with money income. Families with money income are not forced to balance their accounts with money income.

TABLE 117 Summary of Family Expenditure for Current Consumption, by Income Level Urban United States, 1950

	Total expenditures for current consumption	Average Percentage Expenditure for Current Consumption											
		Food and beverages	Tobacco	Housing	Fuel, light and refrigeration	Kitchen and operation	Furniture and equipment	Clothing and clothing accessories	Transportation	Medical care	Personal care	Recreation, etc.	Miscellaneous
Under \$1,000	\$ 1,276	34.6	1.2	18.7	7.5	4.9	4.5	6.5	7.2	7.2	2.0	3.4	2.7
\$1,000 to \$2,000	1,768	36.3	2.0	15.7	6.1	4.6	4.9	9.2	7.9	5.4	2.4	3.7	1.6
\$2,000 to \$3,000	2,718	34.7	2.1	12.8	4.6	4.2	6.4	10.3	10.9	5.3	2.4	4.7	1.4
\$3,000 to \$4,000	3,510	32.8	2.0	11.5	4.5	4.1	6.6	10.8	13.5	5.5	2.3	5.7	1.1
\$4,000 to \$5,000	4,450	31.1	1.9	10.9	4.0	4.2	7.1	11.4	14.4	5.1	2.2	6.3	1.2
\$5,000 to \$6,000	5,257	30.2	1.7	10.3	3.7	4.5	7.2	12.3	15.5	4.8	2.2	6.3	1.4
\$6,000 to \$7,500	6,045	29.1	1.6	10.3	3.5	4.6	7.2	12.8	15.6	5.0	2.1	6.9	1.4
\$7,500 to \$10,000	7,108	28.9	1.5	9.9	3.4	5.4	6.4	13.6	15.5	5.3	2.1	6.9	1.3
\$10,000 and over	10,773	24.5	1.0	10.7	2.8	9.0	8.4	14.1	12.8	4.1	1.9	7.8	0.9

Derived from Table 12 p. 3 Wharton School of Finance and Commerce Study of Consumer Expenditures and Income and Sex by Vol. XVIII University of Pennsylvania, 1957

TABLE 11-8 Annual Budgets for a Family of Four (Man, Wife Boy 13, Girl 8)
at Two Income Levels at September, 1961, Prices in San Francisco*

Expenditures	Salaried Junior Professional and Executive Worker (Home being purchased)		Wage Earner (Renter)	
	Dollars	Percentages	Dollars	Percentages
Total cost**	\$9 742.41	100.0	\$6 777.59	100.0
Income taxes	1,256.07	12.9	755.00	11.1
Total without taxes	8 486.34	87.1	6,021.95	88.9
Food	2 407.85	28.4	1,831.41	27.0
Alcoholic beverages	80.55	0.8	57.98	0.8
Housing	1,518.07	14.1	978.00	14.4
Household operation	461.99	4.7	282.93	4.2
Household furnishings	330.51	3.4	216.86	3.2
Clothing and upkeep	756.33	7.8	503.54	7.4
Transportation	1 003.98	10.3	537.70	8.7
Medical and dental care	671.28	6.9	575.89	8.5
Personal insurance	375.30	3.9	290.68	4.3
Personal care	152.97	1.6	115.15	1.7
Recreation	435.07	4.5	235.69	3.5
Tobacco	119.08	1.2	119.08	1.8
Reading	57.51	0.6	39.26	0.6
Education	69.79	0.7	8.77	0.1
Gifts and contributions	155.06	1.6	93.49	1.4
Miscellaneous	31.00	0.3	17.50	0.3
Union dues			68.09	1.0

Adapted from Heller Committee for Research in Social Economics Q and by a d Co t B Agents for Two Income Levels (B kely Un vers ty
f California, 1961) pp 17 a d 58
Includes sal y tax

in one category. In most cases housing alone is the second largest category in every case when housing and household operation are combined it becomes the second largest category. One of the most startling disclosures of the expenditure data is the importance of transportation. In the City Worker's Budget those families with cars spend a larger proportion of their income on transportation than on clothing, ranking transportation third among expenditure categories for these families. In the Heller Budgets transportation ranks third. In the 1950 survey of consumer expenditures transportation ranked above clothing at all income levels except those between \$1000 and \$2000 and over \$10 000. In this study transportation ranked above housing at all incomes about \$5000 when 1) housing, 2) fuel, light and refrigeration and 3) household operation are considered separate categories. When the latter items are combined transportation ranked third. The proportion for transportation rose from 7 per cent for families with incomes under \$1000 to more than 15 per cent at incomes between \$5000 and \$10 000. Only above \$10 000 did the per cent spent for transportation drop. Although in the Heller budgets the proportion for clothing in each occupation and income group is almost identical in the 1950 study of consumer expenditures the proportion for clothing increased from 6 per cent at the lowest level to 14 per cent at incomes over \$10 000. In general clothing ranked fourth, however at incomes over \$10 000 it ranked second when housing was considered alone. Although recreation is not a major category its proportion rose steadily as income increased.

Effect of Life Cycle

Up to this point the patterns given here have dealt with families in general and those on different income levels, yet the importance of other factors in determining the use of resources has been stressed in earlier chapters. Table 11.9 shows the effect of the age of the head of the family and the presence of children of different age groups upon expenditures. These data, collected by a research organization for *Life* magazine to provide a background for marketing decisions, do not include expenditures for business gifts and contributions, income tax, education, vacations or additions to savings or capital. As would be expected expenditures for food increased proportionately with the presence of children, however the difference was only a matter of 4 per cent. When the incomes of the families are taken into account the amounts spent for food vary considerably more than the percentages. Housing ranked second for every stage in the cycle with the largest percentage used for housing in the case of families with younger children. Transportation ranked third. Automobile, home furnishings and equipment and recreation

TABLE 11-9 Share of Annual Household Expenditures by Stage in the Life Cycle*

	Household's Stage in the Life Cycle			
	All house holds	No children and head under 40	Younger children only	No children and head over 40
All goods and services-total	\$4 110 100%	\$4 332 100%	\$4 607 100%	\$5 699 100%
Food beverages and tobacco	29	30	30	29
Clothing and accessories	12	12	13	11
Medical and personal care	5	4	5	6
Home operation and improvement	19	19	15	18
Home furnishings and equipment	9	10	8	9
Recreation and recreation equipment	5	7	5	5
Automotive	14	17	14	14
Other goods and services	7	5	6	8

From *Life Style of Consumer Expenditures*, Vol. I Conducted by Alfred P. 112 Research Inc. New York Time Inc. 1957 unnumbered table 2 on p. 30 and 32

accounted for a larger proportion of expenditures for families with no children and the head under 40 years of age than for any other group

The Bureau of Labor Statistics has published an Interim Budget for a Retired Couple²⁰ with a level of living comparable to that in the Interim City Worker's Family Budget discussed earlier. The housing provided for is a 2 or 3 room rental dwelling meeting the same health standards as for the city worker's budget. The budget provides nothing for life insurance or income taxes assuming that insurance policies have been paid for before retirement and that the amount of taxable income is insufficient to require payment of taxes. Medical care accounts for 9 per cent of the budget with the expectation that a surplus in one year will be allowed to accumulate for those years with heavier medical expenses. An interesting change from an earlier budget for retired couples is the increased recognition of car ownership in the retired group. In the earlier budget only public transportation was included. The total cost of the revised budget for a retired couple in 1959 was \$5,366 in Chicago \$2,641 in Houston Texas \$3,223 in San Francisco and \$3,017 in Washington D C.

Effect of Occupation of Head of Family

Data concerning the effect of the occupation of the head of the family are presented in great detail in the Study of Consumer Expenditures Incomes and Savings published by the Wharton School of Finance and Commerce²¹ however even the summary tables are too involved to present here since they classify the data first into seven occupational groups then into seven age groups nine income levels and twelve expenditure categories. Occupation is however probably not as potent a factor in determining use of resources as are size of income stage of the life cycle or age of the head. The Heller budgets²² reflect differences in occupations as well as in incomes.

Intercity Differences

The most marked differences due to residence are those which have been discussed in relation to farm and urban families²³ however intercity differences were apparent when the same list of commodities and services for a four person family were priced in 20 cities in the United States in 1959 (See Table 11 10.) The total cost of the budget was found

²⁰ Margaret S Stoltz. The BLS Interim Budget for a Retired Couple. *Monthly Labor Review* Vol III (November 1960) pp 1141-1157

²¹ *Op cit* Vol XVIII Table 9 2 pp 156-161

²² See Table 11 8 p 35.

²³ See pp 207-208

TABLE 11 10 Cost of Interim City Worker's Family Budget in 4 Cities at 1959 Prices*

	Chicago		Houston		San Francisco		Washington	
	Dollars	Per cent	Dollars	Per cent	Dollars	Per cent	Dollars	Per cent
Food	\$1 751	26.6	\$1 486	27.7	\$1 795	28.5	\$1 684	27.4
Housing	1 632	24.9	1 192	22.2	1 348	21.4	1 470	23.9
Clothing	584	8.9	506	9.4	570	9.0	554	9.0
Medical Care	314	4.8	309	5.8	397	6.3	304	4.9
Transportation	568	8.6	467	8.7	537	8.5	517	8.4
with car	(696)	(10.6)	(569)	(10.6)	(672)	(10.7)	(634)	(10.5)
Gas car	(164)	(2.5)	(144)	(2.7)	(110)	(1.7)	(148)	(2.4)
Other	758	11.5	662	12.3	694	11.0	670	10.9
Personal Taxes	702	10.7	490	9.1	669	10.6	690	11.2
Insurance and Business Expense	258	3.9	258	4.8	294	4.7	258	4.2
TOTAL	\$6 567	100.0	\$5 370	100.0	\$6 304	100.0	\$6 147	100.0

Source: Helen H. Lamale and Margaret S. Stutz. The Interim City Worker's Family Budget. Monthly Labor Review August 1960, p. 789.

to be highest in Chicago Illinois and lowest in Houston Texas Housing including heat and utilities was the most important single factor in explaining intercity differences The pattern of the use of the family's money income will differ somewhat from city to city as these factors operate A particular family moving let us say from Houston to Chicago in 1959 without a change in money income would have felt the same as if they had had a decrease in income The feeling of decrease in income might be even greater because housing costs for a new family in a community may exceed those for an established family in the same community

SUMMARY

In this chapter basic concepts necessary to the understanding of money management were defined including real income direct and indirect income psychic income and minimum adequacy

A considerable amount of factual information concerning the distribution of income and patterns of use of income was presented

When statistical material was available the effects upon the use of money of certain of the factors described in Chapters 6 and 7 were highlighted

Statistical material is easily available for study and comparison but it is also separated from the discussion of planning the use of income by individual families

The patterns of use of income have been given to provoke thought and not to imply that families should be fitted into molds

Discussion topics problems and activities appropriate to the content of this chapter are located after Chapter 12

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Bureau of Census *Consumer Income Current Population Reports Series P 60 No 37 1962*
 ——— *Population Characteristics Current Population Reports Series P 20 No 116 1962*
 CLARK Lincoln Ed *Consumer Behavior Vol II Life Cycle and Consumer Behavior* (New York New York University Press, 1955)
 ELLIS Mary Jane *Value of Consumption An Improved Measure of the Level of Living Family Economics Review June 1961 pp 3-8*
 GARTNER Joseph and KOIMER Lee *Consumer Marketing Bulletin II Economic Information for Consumer Marketing Programs Ames Iowa Iowa State University Cooperative Extension Service May 1961*
 GOLDSMITH Raymond *et al Study of Saving in the United States Vol I* (Princeton N J Princeton University Press 1955)

- LAMALE Helen H and STOTZ Margaret S The Interim City Worker's Family Budget *Monthly Labor Review* Vol 83 (August 1960) pp 785-808
- Changes in Concepts of Income Adequacy over the Last Century *The American Economic Review* Vol 48 No 2 (May 1958) Papers and Proceedings of the Seventieth Annual Meeting of the American Economics Association Philadelphia December 28-30 1957
- Heller Committee for Research in Social Economics *Quantity and Cost Budgets for Two Income Levels* (Berkeley University of California 1961)
- Housework What It's Worth *Changing Times* Vol 15 No 3 (March 1961)
- KNOLL Marjorie *Economic Contributions and Receipts of Household Members* Ithaca N Y Cornell Univ Agr Exp Sta Memoir 350 October 1957
- Life Study of Consumer Expenditures* Vol 1 Conducted by Alfred Politz Research Inc New York Time Inc. 1957
- Proceedings of Conference on Using Expenditure and Related Data in Teaching Financial Management sponsored by Family Economics-Home Management Section of the American Home Economics Association Swarthmore Pennsylvania June 29-30 1958 Washington D C American Home Economics Association
- U S Department of Labor *How American Buying Habits Change* U S Government Printing Office 1959
- Wharton School of Commerce and Finance *Study of Consumer Expenditures Incomes and Savings* Vol XVIII University of Pennsylvania 1957
- WILLIAMS Faith Standards and Levels of Living of City Worker Families *Monthly Labor Review* Vol 79 (September 1956) pp 1015-1025
- STOTZ Margaret S The BLS Interim Budget for a Retired Couple *Monthly Labor Review* Vol 84 (November 1960) pp 1141-1157

Money

If requests for help are an index many families are conscious of the need for learning how to manage their money. Since the majority of consumer goods today must be purchased families apparently recognize that better management of income may provide more of the goods desired. Perhaps even more would ask for help if they totaled their income for the past ten years and compared it with what they have to show for its expenditure. A family with an average annual income of \$6000 has handled \$60 000 in the past decade, an imposing sum for a modest income.

An evidence of the need for help was found in the Michigan study of management in which the homemakers' scores for the use of money ranked fifth among six areas in a management score card.¹ In no case did a family equal the best possible score. One of the practices which was responsible for low scores in the use of money was the lack of democracy in its control.

This chapter deals with the managerial process applied to the use of money. Budgeting—frequently considered the whole of money management—is in reality only the planning step. Vital decisions equally important to the success of the family's money management are made in the last two steps of the process. In the control step methods of checking expenditures before overspending occurs and of making adjustments where necessary are considered in some detail. Evaluation of the use of money is considered from the standpoint of the extent to which the family reached their goals in general and those concerning the handling of money in particular and the satisfaction derived from their use of money. The evaluation is carried out through the use of searching questions. Devices such as accounts, inventories, and net worth sheets which are helpful in answering some of these questions are explained.

¹ Irma H. Gross, *Measuring Home Management*, Mich. Agr. Exp. Sta. Circular Bull. 211, March 1948, p. 10.

BUDGETS—THE PLANNING STEP

The most common planning device for the use of money is the budget. Since money management has not always been presented in a manner which is psychologically sound the word *budget* has unpleasant connotations for many. In order to avoid its use at least one of the authors has laboriously substituted such phrases as *financial planning* which is synonymous but lengthy or *money management* which is a larger concept only to find herself slipping back to using the pithy term *budget* whose origin lies in the old French term for bag or wallet.

A budget is a plan for future expenditures. As such it represents the first step in the managerial process as applied to money. Its success depends upon its being a realistic flexible plan suited to the group for whom it was made and in no small measure to the quality of the control and evaluation steps which follow.

The antagonism which has grown up around budgets is due largely to the fact that in the past families tended to think of the budget as the limiting factor on family expenditures. Today it is recognized that the total amount of money [available] is the limiting factor which makes the budget the businesslike method of dividing the total equitably into various amounts for needs and wishes. Another reason that antagonism developed towards budgets was that in early attempts to teach money management great emphasis was placed on detailed and meticulous records of past expenditures rather than upon decisions made before spending. One text suggested accounts with 31 headings plus up to 12 subheads for each division. While the author of the text in question expected families to select those applicable to their own situation many misguided but determined homemakers tried to follow them exactly.³ The next step in teaching money management which was responsible for the despair of many was the attempt to fit families into patterns based on averages. While such figures may be used as guides as was indicated in Chapter 11 it is now understood that a plan for family spending can be successful only if it is tailor made for that particular family with its clearly defined goals and resources constantly in mind. Even then the budget will need to be adjusted as circumstances change. Rather than limiting the family it will be recognized as a device to help them achieve what they consider most important both now and in the future.

³ Frances Preston "Financial Counseling for Families" *Journal of Home Economics* Vol. 43 No. 1 (January 1951) pp. 19-22.

⁴ Leone Ann Heuer and Sylvia Shiras "Fashions in Budgets" *Journal of Home Economics* Vol. 43 No. 8 (October 1951) pp. 619-621.

Limitations

Lest it be thought that budgets are cure-alls it should be noted that even the most thoughtfully conceived budget has limitations. A budget cannot make an inadequate income adequate. It can, however, help avoid the use of limited funds for items which the family itself agrees are non-essentials. This does not mean that the family will surrender all pleasures until other needs are met. It was recognized in the criteria for minimum adequacy that some allowance for recreation is needed.

Neither can a budget give an individual the ability to select products in the market. The Brown family allocates fifty dollars to the purchase of an overcoat which Mr. Brown will be expected to wear five years. The success of this decision will depend largely upon Mr. Brown's ability to find a coat at this price and to recognize qualities of durability. When limitations of income are understood in relation to needs, the necessity for buying information usually becomes apparent and the individual can then seek help in developing this ability. When such ability is limited, the wise family will allow sufficient funds in budgeting to procure items at normal prices rather than expecting an inexperienced person to find unusual bargains.

Advantages

Despite these limitations, budgets have decided advantages. Planning enables a family to take an overview of their use of income, thus seeing it in perspective. Not only are the amounts allocated to various categories studied in relation to total income, but the balance among categories can be evaluated. Decisions are made as to what is to be included and what is to be omitted, and thus when the occasion arises to make or not to make a particular expenditure, family members are less likely to be swayed by affairs of the moment.

Furthermore, the budget actually helps families see how they can use their income to attain first those goods which they consider most important. Spending without a plan frequently results in frittering away an income which is adequate to provide most of the goods desired by a family. An additional advantage lies in the fact that a plan for spending one's total income cannot be made without deliberation. Conscious choices made after thoughtful consideration of resources are more likely to reflect long-time family goals than are hit-or-miss decisions made as one goes along.

Significance

In a sense, a budget is much more than a plan for the use of money. A great deal can be learned about a family simply by studying its financial

plans Indirectly a budget determines the use of other resources and the kinds of interests which will be developed A man who eager to increase his money income takes on outside jobs may find he has little time and energy to enjoy the goods made possible by his higher income Even though a family may make use of free recreational facilities such as public tennis courts picnic grounds among other things they must make some provisions for appropriate clothing and transportation in order to avail themselves of these free goods Whether or not a busy mother has an opportunity to take part in community activities or whether the young parents have joint recreation away from home may well be determined by the inclusion or omission of baby sitters fees in the budget Although in an earlier example the possibility of a family's donating services rather than money to its church was noted it is a courageous woman or man who attends regularly yet never donates to special offerings or contributes to the many money making projects which church groups sponsor Whether or not such a situation is right or wrong is not the topic under discussion it is only realistic to admit that families are unlikely to express such interests unless some money is allocated to them

Financial planning like all management is dynamic its value and the need for it remain constant throughout the family's lifetime Changing situations require new answers to old or continuing problems or in entirely new problems Since each stage of the family life cycle brings new problems and new demands upon resources the family needs to adapt its plans Thus financial management remains important throughout each stage of the life cycle Probably no other budget will be so difficult as the first one regardless of what stage of the life cycle the family is in when the need for such planning is recognized Succeeding plans will be easier because the principles of planning remain the same and some information can carry over On the other hand no matter how fine a budget was when it was conceived it will not be suitable when changes occur either in the family's resources or their needs It is probable that changes will be required even before its trial period has passed—a reason for the control step in the managerial process

A third way in which financial planning is significant for family life is that it serves as an approach to other problems People are more willing to discuss money problems than some other more basic questions Yet since these basic problems may be closely tied to finances a discussion of the latter may help to clarify the issues When expenditures are totaled a young wife may realize for the first time that she has been too demanding for clothes a husband may recognize that he has expected his wife to do the impossible with the allowance he had previously given her or an adolescent may see that his family is not against him even though he

can I have a new bicycle Frances Preston says : While receiving the budgetary help the client may be freed to reveal other difficulties within the family Or the caseworker while exploring the budget difficulties may help bring to the conscious level realization that financial disagreements are symptomatic of other problems ⁴

It should be recognized that money has very different meanings and serves different purposes for different people If a person is immature in his attitudes toward money they may interfere with the successful application of principles of management to financial problems One member of a married couple may use money to attack the other the husband by doling money to his wife or the wife by wasteful spending to show hostility to her husband or by accusing him of inadequate support Some people find security only in material goods and this makes them insatiable in their demands upon family income Either partner may use money to buy affection Money may be used to keep others for example grown sons or daughters dependent upon the donor or it may be the basis of an individual's independence.⁵

Financial planning may also provide an approach for training children in the use of money In a study of the effect of training upon adult habits in the use of money Prevey found that childhood experiences with money are significant some being more effective than others The data from this study showed that parents consistently employed better educational methods with boys than with girls and many parents acknowledged believing that boys have more need for training in this area The two childhood factors which appeared most valuable in the development of good money habits in young adulthood were earning in the community and being informed as to the family's economic status ⁶

There are many common arguments against children having a part in family planning and spending all of which can be refuted with little effort One such argument is that children will worry too much if they are aware of financial problems Parents can give a child a broad understanding of the family's situation without their knowing all details For example the child may be told that there are debts to be paid because of illness or because the family is buying a home and that for these reasons the entire family must watch their spending The child can be given a feeling of security by assuring him that a plan has been made for repaying the debt Children are sensitive to feelings as well as to

⁴ Preston *op cit.*, p. 22.

⁵ Frances Lomas Feldman *The Family in a Money World* (New York: Family Service Association of America 1957) pp 83-84 and Edith G. Neimer "Emotional and Social Values Attached to Money" *Marriage and Family Living*, Vol. 22 No. 2 (May 1960) pp 152-153

⁶ Esther Prevey "Developing Good Habits in the Use of Money" *Journal of Home Economics* Vol. 38 No. 2 (February 1946) pp 79-81

words and they may be more upset because they know something is worrying their parents than they would be if the situation were explained in terms they can understand Kathryn Forbes relates a first generation Norwegian mother's method of giving her children a feeling of security through *Mama's Bank Account*. By joint effort the family always found a way to augment the little bank or emergency fund kept in a gaily painted box so that it would not be necessary to go to the BANK and the children did not know until they were grown that the bank account had never existed.⁷

Another reason given for not confiding in children is that they will tell all they know. This is a problem which arises in many areas of living. Children are taught that one does not discuss such activities as toileting among outsiders and they can also be taught that money matters can be discussed freely at home but that they are not shared with others. An understanding of why they are considered personal is usually all that is needed. Here again the child may be given an understanding of the situation without divulging all facts and figures.

Extent and Completeness of Money Plans

While the Michigan study showed the need on the whole for improved management certain types of financial plans were more frequently used than others. Of the 382 rural families interviewed 81.9 per cent made some kind of plan for saving. However only 24.3 per cent planned for current use of money.⁸ In a more recent study of managerial practices of married students at Michigan State College 11.1 per cent of the couples planned expenditures and 84.4 per cent of these plans were for periods of several years.⁹ Again many of the plans were partial (approximately three fourths) and nearly two-thirds of them were unwritten. Van Bortel found in a study of homemakers from two socio-economic groups in one Michigan city that while four fifths of the homemakers in both groups reported making financial plans only one fifth were written.¹⁰

In Wells' study of sixty families married less than ten years and with wives not older than thirty years of age about one-half of the families

⁷ Kathryn Forbes *Mama's Bank Account* (New York: Harcourt, Brace and World 1943).

⁸ Irma H. Gross and Evelyn A. Zwemer *Management in Michigan Homes* Mich. Agr. Exp. Sta. Bull. 196 June 1944 pp. 24-27.

⁹ Alice C. Thorpe and Irma H. Gross *Managerial Practices in the Homes of Married Students at Michigan State College* *Quarterly Bulletin* Mich. Agr. Exp. Sta. Vol. 32 (February 1950) pp. 288-306.

¹⁰ Dorothy Greer Van Bortel *Implications for Home and Family Living from an Investigation of the Managerial Practices of Two Socio-economic Groups of Homemakers*—a paper given for the Family Economics Home Management Division American Home Economics Association Atlantic City N. J. June 24 1952.

budgeted Fifty-eight per cent of the 26 families established less than five years budgeted their incomes compared with only 41 per cent of the 31 families established more than five years Size of the income did not affect the number budgeting but did affect the reasons for budgeting or for not doing so Those with low incomes budgeted to help make pay checks go further while those with higher incomes did not give this as a reason For those who did not budget those with higher incomes said they did not need to budget and those with low incomes said they had too little money to budget ¹¹

In some cases families who dislike budgeting intensely and will have none of it are found to have made partial plans in order to reach certain goals It may well be that families who are impatient with the amount of detail necessary to make complete plans for a year will accept the idea of partial plans for current expenditures by saying that a certain amount will be set aside for the children's education retirement or some other long time goal Without question partial plans are better than no plans at all and if there is little financial pressure partial plans may be all that are necessary On the other hand if a family is experiencing difficulty in making ends meet or in saving for cherished goals a comparatively complete financial plan for current expenditures is needed

Steps in Making a Budget

The following paragraphs assume that a plan is being made for the use of the entire income the same procedures can however be adapted to partial plans In general budgets are made for a period of a year although partial plans may extend over a much longer period of time A year is the ordinary unit since a shorter period might fail to reveal the need for spreading occasional large expenses such as annual insurance premiums the cost of fuel or income taxes A longer period on the other hand is beyond the grasp of most people when expenditures are to be examined in some detail A young couple just starting to budget may wish to make partial plans for a year covering the occasional items and make specific plans for a period of several months until they get the feel of it

In reality a budget would exist if only three steps were carried out estimate income estimate expenditures and bring expenditures and income into line However if given only these instructions most people would not know how to proceed and the resulting budget would probably not be successful The following discussion of budgeting includes five

¹¹ Helen Laverne Wells Financial Management Practices of Young Families " D 8928 EH and HM Research I June 1959 (Mimeo) New York State College of Home Economics Cornell University Ithaca N Y p 22

steps which will be discussed in some detail. These steps require fundamental decisions and for that reason budgeting is not easy. But it should result in a realistic plan for the family's use of money and related resources and one which can be easily checked to determine their progress toward their goals.

The five steps are

- 1 List commodities and services needed and wanted by family members throughout the proposed budget period
- 2 Estimate the costs of the desired items totalling each classification and the budget as a whole
- 3 Estimate and total expected income
- 4 Bring expected income and expenditures into balance
- 5 Check plans to see that they have a reasonable chance of success

DESIRED ITEMS DETERMINED

While it is conventional in budgeting to start with expected income there is a definite advantage in considering first what the family wants and needs. This approach is psychologically sound since it places the emphasis on family goals rather than upon the limited resources. The limits of the resources must be faced but this is easier once the family has evaluated the importance of various items to its members. The first step in making a budget may be stated thus: *List the commodities and services needed and wanted by family members throughout the proposed budget period.* Since this step involves interpreting the goals of the family in specific goods it requires considerable thought. Some preliminary discussion will no doubt take place. In fact such discussion may serve as the motivation to budgeting itself since goals truly accepted and clearly defined are powerful motivating factors for action. Eventually the discussion must be organized for comparison with the resources available. The list of commodities and services should have three characteristics: it should be classified; it should be stated in terms of specific goods and services; and some order of importance should be established.

Goods and Services Classified The multitude of goods and services consumed by a family over a year's time would have no meaning if they were listed without some organization. Classification provides this systematic approach. By grouping related items the family is less likely to forget essentials. The major headings consist of general groupings such as food and clothing; however the list needs further classification. For example in listing clothing the needs of each family member should be listed separately and one may go so far as to classify clothing into items needed for cold and warm weather. If the family is making the budget at New

Year 3—a time for good resolutions—they may forget that Mary needs a new swimming suit next summer unless they consciously consider the needs of all seasons of the year. Classification should be carried out only so far as it has meaning for the group. It helps serve as a reminder of items to be included. It is useful as a means of comparison both within a specific family's budget and with patterns of use of income and will fit into the family's record keeping.

Most homemakers purchase many nonfood items such as paper goods, laundry and cleaning supplies at the supermarket. If these are listed under operating expenses, the homemaker must mentally determine how much has been allowed for them and combine this figure with her food budget so she has a guide for expenditures at the supermarket. She must then separate them again when keeping records of expenditures. Unless one wishes to check specifically on the cost of nonfood items purchased at the supermarket, it would seem simpler to consider the items as one category both in budgeting and accounting.

While it is helpful for the purpose of comparison if a family's budget headings are similar to those used in the literature of family finance, the headings used should fit the family in question. A family renting an apartment with utilities included would probably have one classification covering housing and operation. Another family paying off a mortgage would no doubt have two classifications in order that the costs of home ownership and the operation of the house would be seen as separate problems. A young couple furnishing a home might have a separate main heading for furnishings while a family in retirement would consider furnishings replacements as a minor heading under household operation. Particularly in the group labeled miscellaneous or other, may an individual family wish to make further classifications suited to their particular situation.

Sometimes a radically different classification of budget items is suggested: fixed large items, day-to-day expenditures for different family members, and an emergency fund. The costs of the fixed items are totalled and divided by the number of weeks or months in the year to determine how much of each budget period's income must be set aside whether or not it is to be spent in that period to meet fixed costs as they fall due. They may include such widely different expenditures as insurance premiums, telephone bills and professional dues. This system would seem more appropriate for a family whose members have been living beyond their income and are now trying to break even. It makes comparison between groups of expenditures difficult and comparison with patterns of use of income by large groups almost impossible. It is important, however, to recognize whether sufficient money will be available for large

occasional items as they fall due and this point will be considered under step 5 in making a budget or checking for the plan's chances of success

While by no means the only possible or a perfect classification the headings and subgroups given below may be helpful

- 1 Income tax
- 2 Food and related costs
 - at home
 - away from home
 - non food items regularly purchased at food store
- 3 Housing
- 4 Household operation
 - fuel
 - utilities
 - household supplies other than in ■ above
 - paid service
- 5 House furnishings
- Transportation
 - automobile
 - public transportation
- 7 Clothing (grouped according to family members)
 - purchases of garments
 - dry cleaning and repair
- 8 Medical and dental (including insurance)
- 9 Personal allowances for family members
- 10 Miscellaneous
 - education costs
 - reading
 - recreation
 - occupational expenses
 - gifts
 - contributions
- 11 Provision for the future
 - savings
 - insurance (life and annuity)
 - investments
 - retirement

Although some budgets deal only with take home pay the suggested classification covers the use of total income. Thus totals for income tax group health insurance retirement and other items withheld by the employer are seen in relation to the total income and can be compared with other categories. For many families the amount withheld for income taxes is insufficient and more money should be set aside for this purpose. Because such taxes are beyond the control of the family this figure should be one of the first to be considered. If the family decides that their tax

payment can be reduced by listing specific deductions they will also recognize the need for careful record keeping. Had income taxes not been considered as an item to be budgeted insufficient funds might be available and/or opportunities for cutting these costs overlooked.

Details Listed Under each of the classifications items should be listed in some detail. Omission of important items at this time may later cause the plan to fail. Unless details are listed it will be difficult to make accurate estimates as to the amount of money needed or to decide what satisfactions are being eliminated when a category is cut. At this stage of the budget it is helpful to note what is on hand in clothing, house furnishings and so forth for this will not only determine what new things are needed but also what characteristics are necessary to fit in with those already owned. In budgeting as in all other kinds of management one must start where one is. Although this may be a disadvantage at times when debts must be repaid at others it is important to recognize the resources already available.

Relative Importance Established It is helpful in listing the items under a budget heading to make some preliminary decisions as to their relative importance. This can be done in either of two ways: listing the things wanted or needed in order of decreasing importance or by grouping them under essential and nice but not necessary. It is almost inevitable that the total cost of the goods needed and desired will be greater than the available income. Therefore an attempt from the beginning to recognize the relative importance of rival commodities and services will be a help in making decisions as to what to include or omit in the final plan. Here again frequent reference to family goals must be made. If the budget does not clearly reflect these goals it is doomed to failure. The importance of a particular good can be judged by whether or not it contributes directly to a goal and if so how important is that particular goal in relation to other goals held by the family.

COSTS ACCURATELY ESTIMATED

The second step in making a budget is *Estimate the costs of the desired items totaling each classification and the budget as a whole*. If a family is making a budget for the first time this step will require considerable investigation. In fact they may decide to keep records for a few weeks in order to obtain information about routine costs. An older family may have records to turn to for this information or lacking the records may have had sufficient experience in the market to estimate costs quite accurately. At every stage of the life cycle or under changing circum-

stances new demands upon money occur and the effects of these changes must be calculated. General business trends must be considered in making these estimates. For example, if prices are showing an upward trend sufficient leeway should be allowed to cover such increases.

The most satisfactory source of information on costs is the market itself and it is helpful if sufficient time can be allowed during the planning stage to "shop around" and see what quality is available at what price. A mail order catalog with its thousands of items and differing price ranges may provide a great deal of information in a short time.

It should be recognized that making a budget for a year cannot be accomplished in one sitting. One popular magazine dealing with family finance has suggested a 12-month period devoted to analysis of family finances, beginning with a forecast of income and expenditures for the following year and with the remaining months devoted in succession to an analysis of the family's net worth, of day-to-day spending, of fixed expenses to see if they can be cut, of the extent and suitability of assets and lastly of debts.¹² One might question the order of the analysis since information on the family's net worth might well supply the motivation for the planning of future expenditures and for early reduction of debts. Nevertheless, the six-month program indicates that financial management is sufficiently important to merit concentrating on one aspect at a time and that further attention is required after the plans are made.

If an individual rebels at the time required, it may help if he evaluates the importance of the decisions being made and their long-term effects upon the people involved. When in doubt as to how much money to allow, it should be remembered that a frequent reason for the failure of budgets is that costs of items included were underestimated.

While the investigation of costs may seem tedious, it is essential to the success of the budget. The task may be simplified by delegating parts of the investigation to different family members. Mother may be a better judge of clothing values than Dad, and so she shops to discover what price is being demanded for overcoats. Dad, on the other hand, can determine costs of car needs much more easily than she, since he has always taken the responsibility for care of the car.

EXPECTED INCOME ESTIMATED

The third step in making a budget is *Estimate and total the expected income*. It is most important to be realistic in this stage of planning, for another frequent cause of budget failures is overestimating income.

¹² Quit Kidding Yourself About Your Finances. *Changing Times*, Vol. 13, No. 1 (January 1959), pp. 7-13.

Assured Versus Possible Income In order not to be either too optimistic or too pessimistic it is helpful to list income under two headings: assured income and possible income. When these are totaled separately the family can arrange their plans so that necessities are taken care of out of assured income and the nice but not necessary items can be obtained if other sources materialize. For example, it is unwise to count on a Christmas bonus to pay the winter fuel bill even though such a bonus has been customary. The bonus once actually in hand might be used for a family trip or to purchase a piece of new equipment that otherwise would have had to be postponed until another time. In listing income one must be consistent with the classification used in step one in deciding whether to list income before or after taxes. The former provides a more complete picture of the family's finances while the latter is considered more realistic by some since this is really the amount with which the family has to work.

Frequently people throw up their hands and say, "We can't budget because my husband's income is so irregular." A little thought makes it clear that these are families for whom budgeting is very important. In order to provide for expenditures as they come due these families may build a reserve to carry them over periods of low income. In some cases this reserve may be as large as a whole year's income so in reality they are spending last year's known income for this year's needs.¹³ Manning¹⁴ found that families with fluctuating incomes were more likely to save through fixed commitments than by sporadically saving surplus cash.

Another method of handling irregular incomes is to fit expenditures into the income pattern as much as possible. Gillespie found that in farm families studied the seasonal spending pattern appeared to be related to the flow of income. Income and spending followed the same general pattern but spending lagged a quarter behind income and tended to be more moderate in its seasonal variations. [however] for this group as a whole expenses in a quarter were always less than income in that quarter even when income was at its lowest point.¹⁵ Still a third approach to this problem may be the planned use of credit to cover periods of low income.¹⁶ If a family has established a good credit rating perhaps borrowing money for the purpose of building a reputation for prompt

¹³ "Getting Along on an Irregular Income" *Changing Times* Vol 15 No 2 (February 1961) pp 38-41

¹⁴ Sarah L. Manning "Financial Management of Fluctuating Income Families" *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 52 No 4 (April 1960) p 275

¹⁵ Marcia M. Gillespie "Seasonal Variations in Spending of Farm Families" talk presented at the 56th Annual National Agricultural Outlook Conference November 19 1958 Washington D.C. (Mimeo 8 pp) pp 23

¹⁶ *Ibid.* p 1

repayment loans may be available despite irregularity of income¹⁷ The fact that the total number of goods and services are reduced in the long run due to the costs of credit must be weighed against the need for providing certain items or against the possibility of postponing their purchase until income has recovered from its slump The more irregular the income the more essential it is that necessities be obtained first and that optional goods and services be added as more funds become available Today with many families keeping rough records of income for tax purposes most people can estimate what their probable minimum income will be and can use this as a basis for their plans a wise procedure since as was cautioned above it is better to underestimate rather than to over estimate income

Lifetime income profiles for different occupational groups were shown in Chapter 6 Typical profiles of annual income (see Figure 12 1) will aid the family in estimating variations in income

All Sources of Income Recognized In listing income care should be taken to include all sources such as salary or wages profits from an owned business professional fees bonuses and gifts dividends from investments and earnings from odd jobs In addition since family income is under consideration income of all members should be included Perhaps the money Johnny earns with his paper route is considered his allowance Nevertheless the family members including Johnny will need to think of it in relation to the entire family budget in order to come to a decision as to what items will be paid for from the allowance This does not mean that Johnny is told how he shall spend his allowance but rather that he understands that his own money is to cover certain things such as movies sundays and other snacks busfare to school and so forth Then he cannot beg for extra funds for a movie with the excuse that he did not know he was expected to pay for them from his own money At first a child might feel that money he had earned should be spent for pleasure alone and that to include busfare or school supplies is unfair After seeing the family's total needs and income he is very likely to feel pride in being able to assist in this way It should be understood that Johnny has some money to spend as he pleases for which he is accountable to no one and that other members need similar freedom

EXPENDITURES AND INCOME BALANCED

Step four in making a budget is *Balance the budget* As with each of the earlier steps this is of great importance and requires careful delibera

¹⁷ Getting Along on an Irregular Income *Changing Times* op cit p 41

Assured Versus Possible Income In order not to be either too optimistic or too pessimistic it is helpful to list income under two headings: assured income and possible income. When these are totaled separately the family can arrange their plans so that necessities are taken care of out of assured income and the nice but not necessary items can be obtained if other sources materialize. For example, it is unwise to count on a Christmas bonus to pay the winter fuel bill even though such a bonus has been customary. The bonus once actually in hand might be used for a family trip or to purchase a piece of new equipment that otherwise would have had to be postponed until another time. In listing income one must be consistent with the classification used in step one in deciding whether to list income before or after taxes. The former provides a more complete picture of the family's finances while the latter is considered more realistic by some since this is really the amount with which the family has to work.

Frequently people throw up their hands and say "We can't budget because my husband's income is so irregular." A little thought makes it clear that these are families for whom budgeting is very important. In order to provide for expenditures as they come due these families may build a reserve to carry them over periods of low income. In some cases this reserve may be as large as a whole year's income so in reality they are spending last year's known income for this year's needs.¹³ Manning¹⁴ found that families with fluctuating incomes were more likely to save through fixed commitments than by sporadically saving surplus cash.

Another method of handling irregular incomes is to fit expenditures into the income pattern as much as possible. Gillespie found that in farm families studied the seasonal spending pattern appeared to be related to the flow of income. Income and spending followed the same general pattern but spending lagged a quarter behind income and tended to be more moderate in its seasonal variations. [however] for this group as a whole expenses in a quarter were always less than income in that quarter even when income was at its lowest point.¹⁵ Still a third approach to this problem may be the planned use of credit to cover periods of low income.¹⁶ If a family has established a good credit rating perhaps borrowing money for the purpose of building a reputation for prompt

¹³ "Getting Along on an Irregular Income" *Changing Times* Vol 15 No 2 (February 1961) pp 38-41

¹⁴ Sarah L. Manning "Financial Management of Fluctuating Income Families" *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 32 No 4 (April 1960) p 275

¹⁵ Marcia M. Gillespie "Seasonal Variations in Spending of Farm Families" talk presented at the 36th Annual National Agricultural Outlook Conference November 19 1958 Washington D.C. (Mimeo 8 pp) pp 2-3

¹⁶ *Ibid* p 1

repayment loans may be available despite irregularity of income¹⁷ The fact that the total number of goods and services are reduced in the long run due to the costs of credit must be weighed against the need for providing certain items or against the possibility of postponing their purchase until income has recovered from its slump The more irregular the income the more essential it is that necessities be obtained first and that optional goods and services be added as more funds become available Today with many families keeping rough records of income for tax purposes most people can estimate what their probable minimum income will be and can use this as a basis for their plans a wise procedure since as was cautioned above it is better to underestimate rather than to overestimate income

Lifetime income profiles for different occupational groups were shown in Chapter 6 Typical profiles of annual income (see Figure 12.1) will aid the family in estimating variations in income

All Sources of Income Recognized In listing income care should be taken to include all sources such as salary or wages profits from an owned business professional fees bonuses and gifts dividends from investments and earnings from odd jobs In addition since family income is under consideration income of all members should be included Perhaps the money Johnny earns with his paper route is considered his allowance Nevertheless the family members including Johnny will need to think of it in relation to the entire family budget in order to come to a decision as to what items will be paid for from the allowance This does not mean that Johnny is told how he shall spend his allowance but rather that he understands that his own money is to cover certain things such as movies sundays and other snacks busfare to school and so forth Then he cannot beg for extra funds for a movie with the excuse that he did not know he was expected to pay for them from his own money At first a child might feel that money he had earned should be spent for pleasure alone and that to include busfare or school supplies is unfair After seeing the family's total needs and income he is very likely to feel pride in being able to assist in this way It should be understood that Johnny has some money to spend as he pleases for which he is accountable to no one and that other members need similar freedom

EXPENDITURES AND INCOME BALANCED

Step four in making a budget is *Balance the budget* As with each of the earlier steps this is of great importance and requires careful delibera

¹⁷ Getting Along on an Irregular Income *Changing Times* op cit p. 41

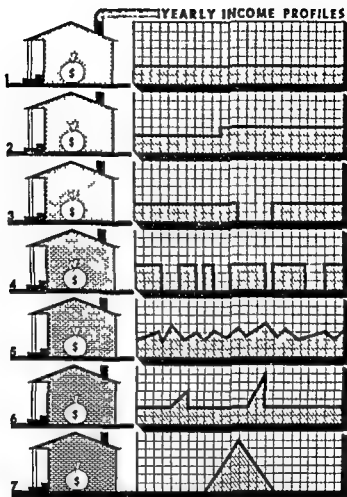


FIGURE 12-1 Profiles of Money Income for a Year

Profile 1 represents family with set income from a salary

Profile 2 shows this family in a year when an increase is received

Profile 3 illustrates occupations where a known period without pay occurs Teachers paid on the basis of the school year are in this group

Profile 4 shows a wage earner who is irregularly employed with many layoffs of varying lengths

Profile 5 is the profile of an independent business or professional person whose income from fees commissions and so forth varies somewhat but whose minimum income is predictable

Profile 6 represents an income with several predictable peaks as in the case of a farmer who sells crops or stock in the spring and fall bringing large amounts at those points

Profile 7 illustrates a free lancer such as an author or inventor who receives income in a single lump when his major project is marketed

tion Even the most rudimentary budget is not complete until total expected income equals total expected expenditures Since needed and desired goods and services ordinarily add up to more than the expected income two approaches are possible to bring the two into balance One can either increase the income or cut expenditures

Increased Income As was pointed out in Chapter 7 the majority of married women working do so for economic reasons Some men take on extra jobs at night or on week ends to increase their income If the budget is balanced by increasing the income available the effect upon the use of other resources and upon the welfare of the family should be taken into consideration The effects of the homemaker's being gainfully employed upon her use of time and energy were discussed earlier An inventory of the costs to the family in reduced goods and services provided directly by the homemaker and in money expenditures resulting from her being gainfully employed may be necessary to help the family decide whether or not she should work outside the home In a study of the managerial procedures of a small group of families who had cooperated with home management classes at Cornell University it was found that half of the families reported decisions concerning the wife working but in less than one-third of the families was the wife gainfully employed In every case the decision was based on the greatest satisfaction to the family The investigator said "In some cases this was taking a job to supplement the family income and in others it meant not taking an outside job but doing the extra things at home that made for family comfort and happiness"¹⁸ Families also need to decide whether outside jobs the father may accept to increase money income result in an actual gain or loss in real income and in psychic income

As has been mentioned another means of temporarily increasing income is through the use of credit Many families are willing to use credit to obtain articles for which they would otherwise have to wait these families may well consider credit as a means of balancing the budget in the planning stage rather than when faced with the purchase of an item or when they are in financial trouble A family with several young children may consider that the satisfaction of having a washer and/or dryer during this period far outweighs the extra cost of credit Wells in her study of families married ten years or less found that while paying cash was the most frequent method for obtaining equipment a greater

¹⁸ Barbara Ruth Snowman *A Study of Home Management Procedures of Thirteen Selected Families Who Cooperated with Home Management Classes at the New York State College of Home Economics Cornell University from the Time of Their Initial Contact to the Present 1935-52* Unpublished Master's thesis Cornell University 1952 p 71

proportion of washing machines (one third) was obtained by credit than any other item of household equipment.¹⁸ On the other hand, the same family may decide that it is not justifiable to borrow for a vacation. If a family considers credit when balancing the budget and before any commitments have been made, they will probably give objective consideration to credit costs. This topic will be considered in some detail in Chapter 14.

While it is an individual matter as to whether the budget is balanced by increasing income or decreasing costs, it is only realistic to point out that opportunities for increasing income are not always available. In this case the only alternative is to cut costs. The philosopher who said that in order to increase man's happiness one should not increase his income but decrease his wants was not only recommending in essence this method of balancing the budget but was suggesting the simplification of one's standard of living.

Expenditures Cut. Although one may through choice or by force of circumstances decide to use the second method of balancing the budget (i.e. cutting expenditures) there are several possible attacks to the problem.

One can cut a little here and a little there by retaining all the items originally included but reducing the amount allowed for each or the quantity or quantities to be purchased. Food is a good example of how small savings accumulate. If the homemaker can pare only 10 cents per person per day from her food costs, the annual saving for a family of four will be \$146. If the amount first allowed is just sufficient to provide minimum adequate food, the budget cannot be cut even 10 cents per capita without its affecting the family's health. Yet many families spend much more for food than is necessary for adequacy and can make moderate reductions and have equally attractive and satisfying meals with a little thought and care. The family may even have the same kinds of meals to which they are accustomed but reduce costs appreciably through careful shopping. As was said earlier, a budget does not necessarily make one a better buyer but it is surprising how such a plan can serve as an incentive to acquire knowledge to weigh choices in the market and to search for good buys. The father may suggest that by eating at a cafeteria he can have food equal in quality to that of the restaurant where he now eats his lunch. Although the meal costs about the same, he saves because he does not feel the need to tip a waitress. A reappraisal of the clothing category may show that all the garments listed are necessary but that lower priced ones may be substituted or that while the minimum price has been allowed for shirts according to the father, he can get along

¹⁸ Wells *op cit* p. 12.

with one or two fewer than had been suggested. It is now clear how important the detailed lists made in step one are in determining where and how items can be reduced.

A second method of cutting expenditures comes to mind almost as soon as one studies the aforementioned lists which were classified according to their significance to the family. Certain items far down the list in order of importance or listed under "nice but not necessary" may be eliminated completely. If the cost of these items is large, the omission of several may balance the budget without further ado. Thus the family may have considered a vacation desirable but when faced with the alternative of retaining the trip or cutting other things they consider important (e.g. subscribing to a wide variety of magazines, entertaining frequently, and providing a musical instrument for a talented child) they are forced to weigh values. In the example given, the elimination of a single item probably would make possible the inclusion of a number of others in the final plan.

Still a third method of cutting expenditures may be used to balance the budget. Some of the desired commodities and services may be acquired through direct means rather than through the use of money. While it is agreed that the mother needs regular permanent waves if she is to appear well groomed, she may be able to achieve the desired results with home permanents instead of patronizing a beauty parlor. Father may cut his lunch costs still further by carrying his lunch from home. A surprising number of people in white collar jobs do just this today and find it not only less expensive but also more relaxing than fending off crowds in restaurants. Use of community facilities such as a laundromat may forestall the purchase of expensive equipment or public libraries may be patronized instead of purchasing books and periodicals. A vegetable garden may contribute to cutting food costs and family members may provide many services which at first thought were to be bought in the market.

Of course a family may use a combination of all three of these methods of cutting costs. The important point to remember is that in so far as possible the cuts should be made in such a way as to retain those commodities and services which are of great importance to the family members.

The budget cannot be considered balanced, however, until the proposed expenditures and savings are mathematically equal to the anticipated income. Unless this is done, one is likely to avoid decisions as to what items are to be omitted and which included. From the control standpoint it is important that these decisions and the alternatives considered be clearly recognized. For example, if the family mentioned above decides

does not aid in the accomplishment of the long time goals of the family it is not suited to that family's needs and should be studied further

Whether the budget in its final form is written depends upon the individual family. It is difficult to believe that any group who had thoughtfully carried out the five steps listed above would be satisfied without a memorandum of the decisions made in the planning stage to be referred to later. If however the budget is not written the time and thought given to these decisions will not have been wasted for the family will have a better idea of the limits of their income and what satisfactions are most important to them. When one considers the infinite variety of decisions which are made in a financial plan for a year it becomes evident that control of the plan in action is virtually impossible without a written record of the plan for reference.

CONTROLLING THE PLAN IN ACTION

As with all types of management plans are unlikely to be carried out successfully unless some control is exercised. This is particularly true with a complex plan such as a budget. Control in financial management is usually of two types: first checking to see how well the plan is progressing and second adjusting where necessary.

Checking

Checking is of great importance since it helps one keep in mind the decisions which were made in the planning stage and gives one the assurance of knowing whether or not adjustments are needed. Several kinds of checks may be devised.

MENTAL AND MECHANICAL CHECKS TO SPENDING

Among the most valuable devices for checking are those which are applied to current expenditures to avoid overspending before it occurs. These may be either mental or mechanical in nature. Mental checks are usually established by breaking the allocations into units which can be related to actual expenditures. For instance \$150 seems like a large amount of money to a student yet when one realizes that the \$150 in her clothing plan must purchase a lightweight coat, a date dress, a school outfit and accessories including hat, shoes and bag to go with all these major purchases it is obvious that extreme care must be used in their selection and the price of each must be considered in the light of the total. Thus one mental check on expenditures is to visualize clearly the items a specific amount must cover.

Another example of a mental check concerns items which consist of many small expenditures. If the man of the house eats his lunch downtown five days a week and \$22 is allowed per month for this item including tips in terms of a daily allowance this amounts to 85 cents for lunch and a 15 cent tip. Therefore if he spends a dollar today for his lunch he will have to reduce tomorrow's lunch to 70 cents or eat in a cafeteria where a tip is not expected. If he had never reduced the monthly allowance to terms of a daily expenditure it would be very easy to overspend without warning since a dollar does not seem an exorbitant amount to spend. A mechanical check which is frequently used is to set aside a certain amount of money in cash to be used for a particular item and the actual disappearance of the money serves to show how rapidly the money is being spent. Many homemakers have a food purse in which the weekly allocation for food is carried. Other families have a series of budget envelopes or coin boxes so that the entire budget for a week or a month is checked in this manner. A major disadvantage of the latter method is that large amounts of cash are maintained and should it be lost through theft or fire the results would be serious.

RECORDS AND ACCOUNTS

A second major method of checking the budget as it is put into action is the use of records or accounts which show the distribution of money after expenditures have been made. Such records can be quite casual such as the keeping of receipted bills and cancelled checks or they can consist of formal and detailed accounts. It is interesting to note that families who make financial plans do not necessarily keep accounts and vice versa so that families must be convinced of the worth of each step in financial management. Gross and Zwemer²⁰ found that while only 24.3 per cent of the 382 homemakers studied made plans for current expenditures 53.1 per cent kept accounts. Of those who kept accounts approximately half used detailed records. On the other hand Thorpe and Gross²¹ found that while 84.1 per cent of a group of 484 married college couples made financial plans only 77.9 per cent kept records of which 57.4 per cent were in the form of record books or files. Thus in the younger families studied a larger proportion made plans and kept records than in the older group but more of the younger families made plans than kept accounts of any kind. It is possible since the younger families were married and in college that money was a very limited resource and thus received more conscious management than in the case of older established families.

²⁰ Gross and Zwemer *Op cit* p. 27

²¹ Thorpe and Gross *Op cit* pp. 295-296

More recently Wells found that all but one of the sixty families interviewed kept some kind of accounts while only about half of them budgeted. Five sixths of the families kept cancelled checks, check stubs, and receipts. About one third kept itemized accounts. Families established five or more years were more casual in keeping accounts than were families established under five years. Families in this study with incomes under \$4000 and over \$8000 were more likely to keep accounts than families with incomes between these levels. The most frequent reason for keeping accounts was proof of payment, with smaller but equal proportions keeping accounts for income tax purposes and in order to know what was spent. Two-fifths used accounts to help gauge future spending, and one third gave as a reason to regulate what is spent.²⁷

Adapted to Family Needs. As was noted earlier, accounts have frequently been misused and families often become so involved in the complexities of elaborate systems that they lose sight of the purpose for which the records are being kept. For families this purpose differs sharply from that of professional accountants or the treasurers of organizations. The two latter groups are entrusted with money belonging to others and a full accounting of all money is expected and demanded. For a family the purpose of records is to show the distribution of money which has been spent and to compare the amounts spent with the amounts allocated to a particular group of items. In this case it is not necessary to strike a perfect balance. A leeway of from 5 to 10 per cent is usually considered acceptable. It is better to have a record of how 90 per cent of the income was spent than to have no record at all. The difference between income and expenditures should be noted so that a true picture of the remaining income is obtained. Although this difference may be classified as miscellaneous, one family headed it G.O.K., meaning Goodness Only Knows, to emphasize the importance of keeping the total unaccounted for within reasonable limits. How large the discrepancy can safely be between known expenditures and income varies with the family situation and how limited the income is in relation to needs.

Desired Characteristics. Accounting systems or records as well as budgets should be adapted to family needs. Complete records may be of two types—arithmetic and nonarithmetic. The latter type represents a new step in accounting and was invented primarily for those who encounter a mental block when dealing with long columns of figures to be totaled. Both arithmetic and nonarithmetic accounts can be set up to meet individual family needs and to include the characteristics needed for a com-

plete picture of family expenditures. These characteristics include recording budget allotments, classifying expenditures, itemizing purchases, summarizing periodically by classifications, recording income and striking a balance between income and expenditures.

In order to coordinate the first two factors, the same headings should be used for the columns in the accounting form as are used in the budget; otherwise there is no check on the budget. For instance, if Transportation is an item which was planned separately in the budget, yet expenditures for it are recorded under the Miscellaneous column in the accounts, there is no way to determine whether or not expenditures are within the limits planned.

The form records may take various forms from a book or card filing system providing an entire page or card for each budget classification, to a large book with many columns per page with each column representing a category. The latter system eliminates much turning of pages when recording several days' varied expenses and it also allows a view of expenditures as a whole. The chief advantage of the former plan is that more space is allowed for complete identification of expenditures. Such an itemization is an aid to future purchases. Nevertheless, many people need only one or two words to identify a purchase. Such itemization is possible in the space allowed in the columns on ledger paper. This paper can be purchased with a sufficient number of columns for most family financial plans. Whether a page or a column is devoted to a single classification, the accounting system should include a space for recording the amount allotted to it in the budget.

In addition to the balance of expenditures against income mentioned above, the family treasurer will probably wish to total purchases in each classification periodically (weekly or monthly). In this way the accounts serve as a constant control for the budget, since they show at any given time how much money is still available. For example, if the budget includes \$20 for one month's expenditures for personal items and only \$18 is spent, then \$22 will be available the following month. On the other hand, if \$22 is spent during the current month, the allowance for the following month should be reduced to \$18, or changes made elsewhere.

So far the discussion has dealt largely with records of expenditures. For most families the record of income is rather simple to keep if the major source is a regular salary or wage. If on the other hand income varies frequently, a separate page or column is needed to keep a record of amounts received and their sources.

Since nonarithmetic records are a new departure in accounts, they may need further illustration. A simple example shown here and called an Expense Chart (see Figure 12.2) was developed by Troelstrup for use

BUDGET CHECK FORM

	SAVINGS, EMER- GENCY		CLOTHING		SCHOOL SUPPLIES		AMUSE- MENT		CHURCH		FOOD CIGA- RETES		misc
	planned	spent	planned	spent	planned	spent	planned	spent	planned	spent	planned	spent	
10 00													10 00
9 50													9 50
9 00													9 00
8 50													8 50
8 00													8 00
7 50													7 50
7 00													7 00
6 50													6 50
6 00													6 00
5 50													5 50
5 00													5 00
4 75													4 75
4 50													4 50
4 25													4 25
4 00													4 00
3 75													3 75
3 50													3 50
3 25													3 25
3 00													3 00
2 75													2 75
2 50													2 50
2 25													2 25
2 00													2 00
1 75													1 75
1 50													1 50
1 25													1 25
1 00													1 00
0 90													0 90
0 80													0 80
0 70													0 70
0 60													0 60
0 50													0 50
0 40													0 40
0 30													0 30
0 20													0 20
0 10													0 10

Date _____ to _____ III

Income _____

Total Amount Spent _____

Black in the amount you spend daily for the various items listed. For example, if you spend 50 cents for food, black in up to 50 cents in the food column. The next time you spend 20 cents more, black in up to 50 cents, etc.

Record of Money Borrowed and
Loaned _____

Money I Loaned _____

Money I Borrowed _____

Explanation of Unusual Expenditures (including amount greater than column allowed for) _____

FIGURE 12-2. Form for Checking a Budget

with college students. It fills all of the criteria mentioned for complete accounts with one exception—that of itemization.

Adjusting

Adjusting is the second major method of controlling financial plans in action. This is a normal procedure; too often people forget that it was they who originally made the plan and that they have the right to adjust it if they wish. Adjustments may be needed for several reasons.

REASONS ADJUSTMENTS NEEDED

First, if the original planning was poor, changes will have to be made in carrying it out so that the family can achieve their goals. The plan may have been poor because income was overestimated, expenditures underestimated, or the plan did not express the family's real interests. When checking makes these faults apparent, new decisions must be made to correct the errors and revise the plan.

Plans may also have to be remade because of factors beyond the family's control or because of unusual opportunities which may not be available later. If the original plans are flexible and allow for emergencies, such control will be easier. Serious illness in the family, the death of a near relative, or an unusual business opportunity which necessitates a change of location might be reasons for changing the original plans. It must be remembered that these changes do not invalidate planning; rather, the original decisions serve as a base for the newer ones, showing where adjustments can be made with the least inconvenience.

An important reason for changing plans is that the family wants to do so, perhaps for no other justification than that they feel like going on a spree. This is a natural feeling and unless indulged in too often need not wreck the budget. The realistic family knows that when the spree is over, whether it be a steak dinner or a more expensive dress than was planned, adjustments must be made. Here again the original plans can help in determining how to offset the added costs. Usually after such a lark the family returns to their plans refreshed, feeling they have broken dull routine and willing to make whatever adjustments are necessary.

A final reason that plans may need changing is that the family may not have set up positive methods for checking such as were suggested in the first type of control and therefore may not realize that their plan is not functioning smoothly until there is a considerable gap between the plan and its execution.

NEW DECISIONS REQUIRED

Adjustments in the control step actually consist of decisions as to whether the original plan should be followed completely revised or merely changed in some details. Not all changes can be regarded as control for unconsidered changes are not always changes for the better. Changes should be checked with long term goals and must recognize the resources still available. By the time the need for adjustment is seen some of the resources will have been used and the new choices must be based not on what one might have done with the original amount but rather on what is the best use of the remaining funds. Long term goals must be considered in decisions in the control step in order that valuable perspective is not lost.

Adaptations made while the plans are being carried out are in reality the same as those suggested as methods of balancing the budget in the planning stage. One may either eliminate some of the items which had been included provide these items directly rather than with the use of money or take steps to increase the income. Many families when they find themselves in what they feel is a temporary financial difficulty increase the funds available at the moment through the use of credit. Suffice it to repeat here that credit provides only a temporary increase in funds which will have to be repaid along with interest thus reducing future income. These facts should be weighed in relation to the present financial relief the credit may provide.

As was suggested earlier the need for adjustments in the plan may have arisen because no means of checking its progress were devised. If such checks were omitted certainly they should be established during the control stage. Just what these checks are is an individual matter but they should be selected so they will offset the specific weaknesses of the people involved. Family A may keep several hundred dollars in a checking account to serve as a cushion for true emergencies and to lower the handling costs of their account (often based on average balance). Family B may know that this is not wise for them since they would be likely to spend the cushioning fund while scarcely realizing it. Family C may find that the only way for them to save is to put the money in the savings account on payday so it will not be spent for current desires.

If as the family carries out their financial plans they discover the accounting system they are using is not meeting their needs—particularly if it does not allow for frequent and easy comparison of budget allotments and expenditures to date—it too should be changed. A frequent error here is that the system attempted is too complex. The family should feel that the accounts serve them instead of their being slaves to the

accounts While it is usually easier if one person serves as accountant for the family experience may prove that the one first given the responsibility is not best suited for it and someone else may take over

LONG TERM ADJUSTMENTS SOMETIMES NECESSARY

While most adjustments made in the control stage consist of fairly immediate changes many families become aware that they need certain long term improvements to insure the success of future plans A case in point is a young bride who realizes that she will never be able to cut food costs safely until she gains information on what foods are needed for sound nutrition and how to select foods in the market The ultimate success of her food budget depends upon these factors and her skill in food preparation If a homemaker is lacking in these resources she cannot fill the lacks immediately but she can improve them gradually eventually making control of her plans much simpler Such information is so varied and so extensive that it cannot be covered in the present book

Another type of information which is helpful in the long term improvement of money control involves the understanding of banking procedures Any person who is responsible for handling large amounts of money including a college student's monthly allowance should know how to protect himself against its loss or misuse how to handle it for his own convenience and that of others and how to keep a check on the present status of his funds Such information includes knowing how to write a check correctly how to endorse checks the various types of checks available for different purposes how to stop payment on checks if necessary through loss or in order to prevent a fraud how to make deposits and withdrawals from bank accounts the advantages and disadvantages of joint accounts the various services provided by banks and their costs and how to check the accuracy of the bank's periodic statement of checking accounts Most banks have illustrated forms explaining how to use their facilities and are glad to answer questions

Many families have questions as to what records or papers should be kept and how to determine whether to keep them A number of books and forms²³ are available to record information about valuable papers including their location These are not account books but in reality are inventories of financial data They usually include a running account of

²³ Ruth Deacon and C. A. Bratton *Do You Know Your Valuable Papers?* Cornell Extension Bulletin 963 Ithaca New York New York State Colleges of Agriculture and Home Economics at Cornell University (1959) The editors of *Changing Times Family Finance Diary* Washington: M. C. Editors Press (1951) \$25 and Louise A. Young and L. G. Sorden *Family Record Book* (Fort Atkinson Wisconsin: Naeco Inc. 1960) \$2.50

MANAGEMENT APPLIED TO SPECIFIC RESOURCES

savings bonds owned including serial numbers which are needed in case of loss investment records and real estate In addition families should keep duplicate copies of tax returns accessible for at least five years Some families use receipts receipted bills and cancelled checks in place of accounts Even with accounts it is wise to keep them for a while then discard those which are so general as to have no value for the information they contain or as proof of payment Check stubs and duplicate deposit slips need be kept only until they have been checked with bank statements The latter may be kept but it is not essential Payroll statements need be kept only a year or until they expire A safe deposit box purposes Guarantees should be kept until they expire A safe deposit box a fireproof safe at home an alphabetized letter file and some drawer space should suffice to store these items

EVALUATING USE OF MONEY

As in all management evaluation of the use of money should be in terms of the family's goals Are these goals being achieved or is progress being made toward their achievement?

Evaluation in the Light of Family Goals

Evaluation of the use of money is particularly important because so many of the satisfactions which families desire today are purchased with it As was noted in the discussion of making budgets the finished plan tells a great deal about the family since no interest can be represented without the use of economic resources In the evaluation stage the family must not only decide whether their planning and their cost of achieved the goals which they had set out to attain but also they must decide whether or not these goals are as satisfying as they had expected A general discussion of the process of evaluation can do only two things suggest questions which the family may put to itself and describe certain devices which highlight information which may be helpful in answering the questions The answers to the questions are highly personal since they must reflect an individual family's particular goals and are frequently deeply philosophical For those reasons material which is briefly presented here may provoke a great deal of thoughtful discussion on the part of a family or group

While completely subjective psychic income or the satisfaction derived from expenditures is one of the most important means for determining whether or not the family's use of money has been successful If a family is dissatisfied with what they have gained from their use of money they

may need first to question the goals they had set in their planning. Next a study of their plans will reveal whether they were really blueprints for reaching these specific goals. Further, if the plans were good, it may be that deviations which occurred during the carrying out of the plans were responsible for the failure to reach the objectives sought. Finally, the family may recognize that they have been overcritical of their own progress and that they are progressing toward their goals as rapidly as can be expected.

Evaluation in the Light of Specific Goals

While the evaluation of the use of money involves human values and long term goals and therefore touches on deep philosophical judgments, most families do not embark on a conscious program of money management unless they have certain rather specific and tangible goals involving money. These might include obtaining fair value for money spent, remaining solvent, providing for the future, and improving their economic position. Progress toward or achievement of these goals for money management can be checked. More and more people are recognizing that wise selection of articles and services on the market is a part of effective money management and attempt to evaluate their progress in attaining these goals.

USE OF ACCOUNTS IN EVALUATION

No doubt the family will turn to the records or accounts which were kept during the control period. These records have still another function to perform in evaluation. When summarized they show not only how much was spent in a particular category, but also the balance among categories and the net savings or loss for the year when total income and expenditures are compared. If the family decides too much was spent in one area, the itemization provided in the accounts, though brief, shows what was obtained for the money spent and enables the family to decide whether or not the total is justifiable. If they feel it must be cut in the future, the records suggest possible items to eliminate. These records are a tangible evidence of which interests the family considered most important. They are a basis for deciding whether to continue in the same general trend or to change it when new plans are made. A form for summarizing income and expense for a calendar year is given in Table 12.1.

Item ⑧ general expenses is a total of all expenditures from the account book. If a family has kept no accounts, they can arrive at this figure by assuming that what has not been saved has been spent. Total taxes and net saving subtracted from total income will then represent

general expenses. An appraisal of the total amount of their unplanned expenditures may launch the family on a program of conscious management of money in the following year!

TABLE 12-1 Your Statement of Income and Expense 19__*

		Increase		Decrease
Income				
1	Income from salary			
2	Other income (dividends interest etc.)			
3	Total			
Expenses				
4	Taxes federal			
5	Taxes state and local			
6	General expenses			
7	Total			
Saving or deficit				
8	Cash			
9	Bonds			
10	Value of stocks			
11	Cash value of life insurance			
12	Equity in house			
13	Equity in car			
14	Value of furniture			
15	Other			
16	Totals			
17	Net saving or deficit (difference in above totals on line 16)			
18	Net worth ** January 1 19__			
19	Net worth December 31 19__			

Adapted from How Did You Make Out This Year? Charles P. Turner, the High School Magazine, Vol. 5, No. 12 (December 1951), p. 9

OTHER DEVICES HELPFUL IN EVALUATION

Several devices exist which used jointly are helpful in evaluating the progress toward the goals of remaining solvent providing for the future and improving one's economic position. They are net worth statements and inventories of household goods.

Net Worth Statements Net worth indicates the amount of assets (or what one owns) remaining after liabilities or debts are subtracted. A net worth statement shows net worth at a given time and a comparison of these statements at periodic intervals will indicate whether the economic position of the family is improving, depreciating or remaining stable. It is

Once net worth has been calculated the family can ask itself the following or similar questions

Debts

Were any new ones incurred? How large?

Were any that were in existence decreased?

By what proportion? By what amount?

How much was spent for interest on debts?

Provision for the future

Was insurance in force kept up? For what does it provide?

Was any new insurance taken out? If so for what does it provide?

Were any investments made? What kind?

Is there provision for the children's education?

For continuing education of adults?

Is there any increase in net worth? Any decrease?

Is it entirely a dollar change?

Have any valuable and durable household goods been added?

Have any valuable goods been discarded and not replaced?

How are assets divided among those with a fixed and those with a flexible value?

The purpose of the evaluation process in money management should always be kept clearly in mind—the family is attempting to see how well it has achieved both its specific goals dealing with money and its more general goals for family living

SUMMARY

This chapter has dealt with the application of the managerial process to the family's use of money

Budgeting which has frequently been thought to be synonymous with all of money management represents only the planning step of the managerial process

Success of a family's financial management is dependent upon their ability to make *realistic flexible plans* which reflect family goals to carry out the plan or adjust it as necessary and to evaluate the results. Steps were suggested for making a workable budget to meet family needs

Three major ways of controlling the plan in action were proposed: checking before overspending occurs using records and accounts and changing the original plan when necessary

Evaluation of use of money should be in terms of the family's goals both long term and immediate. Records and accounts can provide data useful both for the control and evaluation steps of the managerial process

Inventories Sometimes families fail to recognize that an increase in net worth may come with the purchase of large items of durable goods. A seeming decrease in money on hand may be explained and indeed offset by the addition of the value of the durable items to the list of assets. Either the purchase of a davenport for \$300 or a new set of dishes for \$100 is an instance of adding a considerable amount to household inventory. If such an inventory is kept and totalled annually the change in its value can be reckoned in with net worth. A problem immediately arises as to how used articles should be valued year after year. The \$300 davenport bought 10 years ago may be worth much less than \$300 today depending upon its fundamental durability and the use and care it has had. Its replacement cost may however be considered in relation to its present value.

A family should probably decide upon its policy for estimating depreciation the technical term used to cover this decrease in value through use. There is no objection to keeping the full valuation until the article is discarded as it simplifies bookkeeping. If the record keeper wishes to be more accurate he may subtract each year a fraction of the value of each expensive article corresponding to its expected use. Thus if a washing machine is to be used ten years each year one tenth of its original cost may be subtracted from the preceding year's valuation thus

Value of washing machine when new	\$200
At end of 1st year	180
At end of 2nd year	160
At end of 3rd year	140
And so on	

Still a third method is to make a general reduction in value of the inventory as a whole at intervals of several years.

It is apparent that if the value of durable goods is to be incorporated in the net worth statement inventories or lists of these goods should be maintained. The inventory should include some statement as to the present state of repair and present value according to whichever method of valuation was chosen. Such an inventory is invaluable for purposes of insurance claims if household goods are lost through theft or fire as well as helping determine their value as a part of net worth. Forms for household inventories are available from fire insurance companies.

Separate records should be kept of bonds and stocks, life insurance policies and their cash value and the business transactions involved in buying a home, paying loans or collecting debts. From these records the present value or extent of the liability in each case can be determined at any time.

above divide the group into committees and have each committee make a *tentative* budget for that family's expenditures in *one or two* major categories. In some cases (e.g. clothing and furnishings) the committee will need to list brief inventories of items already on hand. After sufficient time has been allowed to gather the needed information (from actual sources as far as possible) and to compile the budget each committee presents a report to the group as a whole and a composite budget is compiled.

No doubt the proposed expenditures will be greater than the expected income. In group discussion suggest many ways of balancing this particular budget. Then each *individual* should decide how *she* would balance it. (She must come to a mathematical balance.) This emphasizes that different people will have different solutions to the problem. Check the budgets (there are now different ones based on the different decisions as to how to balance the budget) in light of the specific goals set up for the family earlier. Do the final plans allow for their attainment?

What kind of interests are indicated by the different ways in which individuals balanced the budget?

- 7 Set up a simple accounting system which you feel will meet the needs of this family and make both control of plan and evaluation possible. The system may be of an informal or formal type and if the latter may be either arithmetic or nonarithmetic.
- 8 Estimate total cost of the particular standard of living which the student is experiencing in the home management house. Suggested points for consideration:
 - a What does rent cost? If the college provides housing what would rent of comparable house in locality cost?
 - b What is the cost of repair and services provided by the college?
 - c What might a family of four living at this level spend for clothing, personal recreation and so forth?
 - d Estimate accurately the full cost per year of equipment used in the home management house. The full cost includes operating expenses, depreciation and the interest upon the investment.
- 9 Calculate the net worth of your family or yourself as an individual at the beginning and end of a chosen period of time. Compare the two explaining any increases or decreases in net worth.
- 10 Using the following score card evaluate five household account books available on your local market.

1 Does the book emphasize planned spending?	25
a Is there space for spending in a previous period?	5
b Is there a space for anticipated spending monthly or weekly?	5
Annually?	5
c. Can the current state of finances easily be compared to plan?	5
d Can the initial plan be altered conveniently to meet changing needs?	5

Net worth statements and inventories of household goods were suggested as tools for evaluating the progress families have made in achieving or progressing toward their economic goals

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

- 1 Family case study (This problem will be used in conjunction with later problems 2 3 5 6 and 7)
 - a Describe your own family or a fictional family This description should include all of the seven factors affecting the use of resources described in Chapters 6 and 7
 - b On the basis of these factors summarize what you feel are the major contributing factors and the major limitations in money management for this particular family at this particular time For example they might be in the most expensive stage of the life cycle but are striving for a costly standard of living at the same time
 - c List the specific goals which this family has chosen which make them unique in spite of the similarity of many of their goals to those of others

- TROELSTRUP Arch W *Consumer Problems and Personal Finance* (Rev) (New York McGraw Hill 1957)
- WELLS Helen Laverne *Financial Management Practices of Young Families*
■ 8928 *Economics of the Household and Home Management Research*
(Ithaca New York New York State College of Home Economics at Cornell University June 1959) (Mimeographed)

II	Is the book adaptable to individual families?	20
a	Is it possible to add additional columns conveniently?	5
b	Can expenditures of family members be kept separately in items desired?	5
c	Can accounts be started at any time of year?	5
d	Can the calculation easily be made by the unschooled person?	5
III	Is the book simple?	15
a	Is it necessary to keep little detail to make use of the record?	5
b	Is the emphasis placed upon spending with plan rather than balancing books?	5
c	Does the book contain no extraneous material?	5
IV	Is the make up of the book suitable?	11
a	Is there good quality paper?	5
b	Does the book open easily?	3
	Lie flat?	3
c	Can the lines and columns be easily followed on the page?	5
	Total	75

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- BIGELOW Howard F. *Family Finance* 2nd ed (New York Lippincott 1953)
- FELDMAN Frances Lomas. *The Family in a Money World* (New York Family Service Association of America 1957).
- Getting Along on an Irregular Income. *Changing Times* Vol 15 (February 1961)
- GROSS Irma H. *Measuring Home Management* Mich Agr Exp Sta Circular Bull 211 1948
- Helping Families Manage Their Finances* Home Economics Research Report No 21 June 1963 Consumer and Food Economics Research Division Agr Research Service U S Dept of Agr
- HEUER Leone Ann and SHIRAS Sylvia. Fashions in Budgets. *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 43 (October 1951)
- How Did You Make Out This Year? *Changing Times* Vol 5 (December 1951)
- MANNING Sarah I. Financial Management of Fluctuating Income Families. *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 52 No 4 (April 1960)
- NEISSER Edith G. Emotional and Social Values Attached to Money. *Marriage and Family Living* Vol 22 (May 1960)
- Quit Kidding Yourself About Your Finances. *Changing Times* Vol 13 (January 1959)
- THORPE Alice C and GROSS Irma H. Managerial Practices in the Homes of Married Students at Michigan State College. *Quarterly Bulletin* Michigan Agr Exp Sta Vol 32 (February 1950)

should the family desire to move to another location it is not always possible to find prospective buyers who are willing to pay the desired price at a given time. In addition a home which was adequate in size when purchased may be much too small when there are children or conversely one adequate in size when the family is at its maximum may prove too large to support and to care for when the children become independent and only the parents remain. While rooms can be added during the crowded years they represent further investment and expense. If such expansion is contemplated at a later date it should be considered in the selection of a house since some plans adapt themselves to such changes more readily than others.⁶

Still a further problem of home ownership which should be considered in making a specific purchase is the fact that depreciation of the house itself or of the area in which it is located may endanger the family's investment. The first danger is that of the depreciation of the house itself is under the control of the family to some extent. They should consider at the time of purchase how much it will cost them to keep the house in repair over a long period of time and whether or not they can afford this outlay. If the house purchased is an old one larger amounts must be provided for repair and upkeep than if it were new. While the deterioration of a neighborhood or area as a residential location is beyond the control of an individual family there are trends apparent in a neighborhood which can be used to judge its desirability over a long period of time. Also if the neighborhood is not fully developed and does not have facilities such as paved streets sewage disposal and street lighting it must be recognized that the addition of these facilities will necessitate assessments on the home owners in the area and may be the explanation for seemingly low prices.

Some of the problems of inflexibility of both design and size of house and deterioration of neighborhoods may be solved by new methods of construction. In 1952 Murlin R. Hodgell described a house offering what seemed the utmost flexibility in design. He said:⁷

I can visualize the development of a house within the limits of today's knowledge which would consist of two planes a roof and a floor. Within the confines of the sandwich formed by these planes a limited number of modular panels and storage units could be arranged in many combinations. As occupants or the needs of the same occupant changed the walls could be rearranged enlarged or reduced to meet the new needs almost as easily as furniture can be moved in present houses. When children married and less space was needed the living

⁶ *Planning the Expandable House* Housing and Home Finance Agency August 1947

⁷ Murlin R. Hodgell "Today's House" *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 44 No 2 (February 1952) p. 96

ADVANTAGES OF OWNING

The advantages of home ownership can be briefly summarized. Once paid for a home provides direct income to the family. While payment ordinarily covers a long period of years, this direct income is frequently available during the period of retirement when earned money income is at low level and when direct contributions to real income are particularly important. While the cost of housing during the period of payment may be higher than rent, the family is not only meeting present housing needs but is also making an investment as opposed to the renter who has nothing to show for the years of rent he has paid. There is considerable prestige value connected with home ownership and many families gain a feeling of security and stability from owning their own homes. Finally, home ownership allows the family greater opportunities for self-expression than is possible when renting. If they wish to make structural changes, they may do so; if they wish to use a striking color scheme, it is their prerogative. Some landlords restrict individual expression to the point that not even a picture may be hung without express permission.

PROBLEMS OF OWNING

On the other hand, the costs of home ownership are higher than rent during the period in which the house is being paid for and the family has full responsibility for maintenance costs, taxes, insurance, and assessments for roads in addition to paying for the house itself. Housing costs are inflexible at best. When a family renting a house or apartment decides that the rent is too high and moves to less expensive quarters, the cost of moving itself usually means that a period of several months passes before they are able to benefit from the lower rent. Home ownership is even less flexible than renting. For most families, payment covers a period of from 10 to 25 years, and the amount of this payment will remain constant whether the nation is in a period of prosperity or of depression with corresponding fluctuations of family income. Therefore it is of vital importance that before starting upon a program of home ownership a family should consider whether or not they are reasonably certain of being able to meet these basic costs of home ownership throughout the period of payment. If a home is purchased during an inflationary period, this is even more important to consider since the market value of the house might be far less than its purchase price if the family decided to liquidate their holdings during a deflationary period.

Another evidence of the inflexibility of home ownership is that it tends to make the family less mobile. Although the home can be sold

of three volumes dealing with Standards for Healthful Housing¹⁰ The basis for these standards is summarized in the Foreword to the second volume of the series¹¹

It is obvious that the healthful home must be provided with the sanitary conveniences and facilities for personal cleanliness necessary to prevent the spread of communicable diseases that it must be so designed¹² to avoid such accident hazards as falls fires and electrical burns that it must provide a proper thermal environment adequate illumination and control of objectionable noise

It is not always so clearly recognized that mental and emotional health is quite as important as physical health The frustration which results from overcrowding conflict between the desires and needs of various members of the family fatigue due to the performance of household duties under unfavorable conditions—these are health menaces quite as serious as (if less obvious than) poorly heated rooms or stairs without railings The sense of inferiority due to living in a substandard home is a far more serious menace to the health of our children than all the insanitary plumbing in the United States

The second volume *Planning the Home for Occupancy*, stresses the need for adequate and effective space within the home and sets up basic functional space needs for different size families for the following activities sleeping and dressing personal cleanliness and sanitation food preparation and preservation food service and dining recreation and self improvement extra familial association housekeeping care of infants or the ill circulation between areas and operation of utilities The total areas do not include laundry facilities since these are not typical of all homes The basic needs in relation to family size totaled¹³

For one person	400 square feet
For two persons	750 square feet
For three persons	1000 square feet
For four persons	1150 square feet
For five persons	1400 square feet
For six persons	1550 square feet

These minimum figures are based on actual physical measurements of pieces of furniture and their circulation areas with deductions for overlapping of circulation areas It is interesting to compare them to the space frequently provided in actual homes today The committee stated in 1950¹⁴

If our totals are even approximately justified it is clear that a large part of the housing built during the past five years is inadequate in its space provisions.

¹⁰ Committee on the Hygiene of Housing American Public Health Association *Planning the Neighborhood Planning the Home for Occupancy and Construction and Equipment of the Home* (1513 E. 60th St. Chicago Public Administration Service 1948 1950 and 1951)

¹¹ *Planning the Home for Occupancy* op cit p v

¹² *Ibid* p vi

¹³ *Ibid*

unit could be compacted and the extra sections given to the new couple to start their own home. Plans would need be only simple diagrams and construction only a matter of bolting or clamping.

Only ten years later at the 1962 Seattle World's Fair a home was shown offering both flexibility of design and flexibility of location. It consisted of four 12 x 24 x 9' modules arranged around a center court. Each module is factory finished inside and out with heating and cooling system, rough plumbing and wiring built into the floor platform. Each unit can be combined with other basically identical units in an endless variety of arrangements to produce a house of any shape or size, a house that can expand as a family grows or even contract as older children move away.⁸ One of the most significant characteristics of the house is its movability—a factor which the editors of *House and Home* claim will be one of the major changes in housing in the next forty years since it will free housing from the death grip of land—the death grip that makes millions of houses obsolete at their site long before they are obsolete in any other way.⁹

Despite the disadvantages of home ownership just discussed, tradition, sentiment, and actual practice are on the side of home ownership. Therefore, the ensuing discussion will deal with two general problems: (1) what constitutes adequacy in housing, which, while of significance to both renters and owners, is of particular importance to the latter; and (2) the costs of home ownership.

Adequacy of Housing

Decent housing is recognized as a justifiable aim for all families. However, the problem of adequacy is far greater than mere physical soundness of the structure and provision of sanitary facilities. As knowledge concerning the effects of housing upon individuals becomes more widespread, the standards for adequate housing become broader.

STANDARDS

In 1939 a Committee on the Hygiene of Housing of the American Public Health Association presented housing standards under four major classifications. These included fundamental physiological needs, psychological needs, protection against contagion, and protection against accident.¹⁰ These principles later served as a point of departure for a series

⁸ "An Evocative Approach to Tomorrow's House," *House and Home*, Vol. 21, No. 6 (June 1967), p. 111.

⁹ *Ibid.*

Housing specialists in the Research Services of the Department of Agriculture and cooperating experiment stations have carried on considerable research to determine space requirements for specific homemaking activities and the interrelationships among activities. Although design standards have not been established, planning guides¹⁷ point out what specific needs may be at each stage of the family life cycle and for various activities.

ADEQUACY OF PRESENT HOUSING

How good are present houses? Preliminary results of the 1960 census of housing show that of over 53 million occupied housing units 27 per cent were dilapidated or if not dilapidated lacked one or more of the following plumbing facilities: private toilet, private bath, or piped hot and cold running water. Overcrowding, as indicated by more than 1.1 persons per room, was found in six million housing units. It should be remembered as well that this measuring rod does not take into consideration the size of the rooms, which tend to be small when compared with the Public Health Association's minimum figures.

Who are the 14 million American families now living in substandard houses? They include one third of the 44 million nonwhite households.

They include the nation's lowest income families who cannot afford housing in the private market. They include increasing numbers of older people—with their generally meager incomes.¹⁸

In 1940 Edith Elmer Wood rated the housing in America as one third good, one third fair, and one third bad.¹⁹ Judging from the increase in population and space limitations due to present high cost of house construction and despite tremendous amounts of housing construction, there is little hope that the situation has been completely remedied. In fact the percentage of housing units which were either dilapidated and/or lacking basic sanitary facilities was 2 per cent higher in 1960 than a decade earlier. This increase is even more startling when it is noted that the total number of occupied housing units increased more than 10 million during that decade.

¹⁷ *Farmhouse Planning Guides: Household Activity Data and Space Needs Related to Design* (Ithaca, New York: Cornell University Agricultural Experiment Station and The New York State College of Home Economics, 1959). A Northeastern regional research publication and *Space Standards for Household Activities* (Bull. 686, Univ. of Ill. Agr. Exp. Sta. in cooperation with the Ala. Agr. Exp. Sta., College of Home Economics of Pennsylvania State University, Wash. Agr. Exp. Stations and the Agr. Research Service of the U.S.D.A., May 1962).

¹⁸ Flora Y. Hatcher, "Housing for the Sixties," *Journal of Home Economics*, Vol. 54, No. 2 (February 1962), p. 101.

¹⁹ Edith Elmer Wood, *Introduction to Housing* (Washington: United States Housing Authority, 1940), p. 9.

Our figures closely approximate actual practice in the high income groups. They are about 25 per cent above the space provided in the better of our public housing projects. They call for about double the space furnished in a great volume of recent speculative building and about double the space indicated in certain "Economy Houses" publicized by federal housing agencies.

Planning the Neighborhood volume one of the series lists as the criteria for an adequate environment ¹⁴

- a) Protection against accident hazards
- b) Protection against contagion and provisions for maintenance of cleanliness
- c) Provision of adequate daylight sunshine and ventilation
- d) Protection against excessive noise
- e) Protection against atmospheric pollution
- f) Protection from fatigue and provision of adequate privacy
- g) Provision of opportunities for normal family and community life and protection against moral hazards
- h) Provision of possibilities for reasonable aesthetic satisfaction

Despite the careful study which has gone into these standards there is need to make them more specific. For example the standards listed above include provision of adequate daylight sunshine and ventilation yet no standard is set for adequate. How much sunshine is needed? The Social Service Housing Committee in New York City representing a number of social agencies has drawn up a list of very specific requirements some of which are legal minima for New York City. Examples show the specificity of these standards: running hot and cold water with a normal pressure of two quarts per minute; another requirement is for a toilet in good working order on a waterproof floor in a compartment 2' 4" wide lighted with a 30-watt electric bulb and ventilated by a window to the outer air or a ventilated duct that assures a constant updraft of air. ¹⁵

The City Worker's Family Budget priced in 1959 had the following requirements for the neighborhood in which the rented house or apartment might be rented ¹⁶

Located in a neighborhood with play space for children (yards playground park or roped off street accessible without serious traffic hazards) within 10 blocks of public transportation and not adjacent to either a refuse dump or to more than one of the following hazards or nuisances: railroad or elevated tracks noisy or smoke and fume-developing industrial installations main traffic artery or intercity truck route

¹⁴ *Planning the Neighborhood* op cit ¶ vii

¹⁵ Persia Campbell *The Consumer Interest* (New York Harper and Row 1949) p 340

¹⁶ Helen H. Lamale and Margaret S. Stotz "Interim City Worker's Family Budget" *Monthly Labor Review* (August 1960) Reprint No. 2346 ¶ 806

to the lender. A large down payment by lessening the risk of the lender may enable the home owner to obtain more favorable loan conditions—for example a lower rate of interest. In general it is taken for granted that the down payment is available in savings and some lenders would refuse to finance a home if they knew the down payment was borrowed. One notable exception to this rule is veterans who have been able to use GI loans for down payments on houses. If the amount of the down payment is small or nonexistent the family may have to take out a second mortgage to provide the total needed.

According to the 1956 Housing Inventory of owner occupied nonfarm dwellings the median down payment was 19 per cent of the purchase price. Although 17 per cent of the buyers had made no down payment the largest number in this group was accounted for by VA mortgages. Twenty nine per cent of this group had made no down payments. On the other hand nearly one-fifth of all purchasers had made down payments of over 40 per cent of the purchase price.²⁰

Before the family decides how much of their savings they can afford for a down payment or whether they are in a position to buy a house at all they must consider a number of things. First how much is a safe reserve to allow for family needs other than housing? What other costs beside the down payment are necessary to close the deal for the loan which most families find necessary? What other costs must be faced which are not covered by the loan?

Preliminary costs usually include²¹

For the Home Buyer

Appraisal fees
 Loan fees if any of lending agency
 Revenue stamps notary fees
 Fees for recording the mortgage and the deed to the property
 Legal charges for examining and transferring the title to the property (to show clear ownership)
 Pro rata insurance and property taxes (that portion of the taxes and insurance already paid by the seller for which you must reimburse him)

*For the Home Builder
 (in addition to those of buying a house)*

Costs of plans or architect's services
 Interest on loan advances to contractors
 Premiums for insurance (depending upon agreement with contractor)
 Inspection fees

²⁰ *Statistical Abstracts of the United States* op cit Table 1074 p 769

²¹ Reprinted by permission of the University of Illinois Small Homes Council from its copyrighted publication *Financing the Home* circular A 13 (December 1951) p 7

Cost of Home Ownership

The present discussion of the costs of home ownership will be limited primarily to those involved in purchasing a house which has already been built. The problems of financing building a house are even more complex since the total cost of the house will not be actually known until it is finished (and the total is frequently greater than was anticipated). Cash is needed at various stages of the process as various types of work are completed, complicating the loan picture and, in addition the family must live elsewhere during the construction period thus adding to the costs.

When a family contemplates the purchase of a home they should answer five questions (1) How much money should we have to embark on this program? (2) How will the investment in housing affect other living costs? (3) How much will home ownership cost us during the years we are paying for the house? (4) What will be the total cost of credit by the time the house is completely paid for? (5) How much will housing costs change after the house is paid for?

INITIAL COSTS

Students frequently assume that home ownership is merely a matter of making monthly payments for they have seen advertisements which state Own Your Own Home—Pay Like Rent. Few families about to buy a home are so naive as to believe the matter is thus simple and the customary practice of making a down payment is recognized. Even these families however are frequently unaware of the other initial costs for which the buyer is responsible. These costs in addition to the down payment may be grouped as preliminary costs and extra costs.

The size of the down payment required is controlled by two factors government regulation and the amount of credit lending agencies are willing to provide. Some families may purchase a house with no down payment although this is not recommended. Mortgage loans for the same income group and the same value house may vary considerably from place to place because of different building costs and the supply of houses available.

Even when minimum down payments were regulated for all housing home buyers were urged to make as large a down payment as feasible without unduly reducing their funds to care for emergencies. This recommendation is based on the fact that the larger the owner's equity (or share) in the investment the more likely he is to complete the payment of his mortgage without incident. At least 20 per cent down payment is recommended. This is an advantage both to the home owner and

upkeep If two loans are made for the same length of time but loan *A* carries an interest rate of 5 per cent compared to a rate of 6 per cent for loan *B*, loan *A* will prove to be considerably cheaper On the other hand the more quickly a loan is repaid the less the total interest charges however the monthly payments will be greater since the principal is being repaid in a shorter time If the family can afford these higher monthly payments the total cost of the house will be decreased This is illustrated by Table 13 1

TABLE 13 1 Annual Outlay for Home Ownership on Each \$1000 Borrowed*

	5% Interest			6% Interest		
	10 years	15 years	20 years	10 years	15 years	20 years
Payment of principal and interest on each \$1000 of loan (amortization costs)	\$127	\$ 95	\$ 79	\$133	\$101	\$ 86
Taxes and assessments	18	18	18	18	18	18
Insurance	3	3	3	3	3	3
Upkeep	20	20	20	20	20	20
Total annual outlay on each \$1000 borrowed	\$168	\$136	\$120	\$174	\$142	\$127

Reprinted by permission of the University of Illinois Small Home Council from its copyrighted publication *Financial Planning for the Homeowner* A 13 (December 1951) p 5

Estimating Costs under Different Payment Terms The figures in this table are based on a systematic reduction of the debt through fixed monthly payments which cover both interest on the remaining debt and repayment of the principal Such a system of payment is called amortization of the debt At first a large proportion of each payment is allocated to interest As the debt is reduced an increasing proportion of each payment goes toward the reduction of the principal (see Figure 13 1) To illustrate the way in which Table 13 1 is used suppose that a house valued at \$15 000 is purchased with a down payment of \$5000 leaving \$10 000 to be financed through a mortgage at 5 per cent interest The following tabular illustration shows how the figures in Table 13 1 are used to show what the costs would be if this house were paid for in 10 years or if it were paid for in 20 years (See next page)

MANAGEMENT APPLIED TO SPECIFIC RESOURCES

The preliminary costs are usually greater if one is building a home than if he buys an existing house. Although some of these costs may be included in the mortgage or occasionally may be paid by the seller the home owner should learn which will require cash on his part so that he will be prepared. They may vary from a small amount to several hundred dollars.

In FHA loans which will be described later²² the first year's mortgage insurance premium the first year's hazard insurance premium and fees for photographs of the house are paid when the loan is closed. An FHA examination fee is paid at the time that application for the loan is made.

Sometimes houses are sold on the package basis and such fundamental equipment as a range and refrigerator are included in the price of the house. Frequently however these are not provided and must be paid for in addition to purchasing the house. Landscaping and repairs or improvements are not ordinarily included in the original price of the house. A family does not want to find themselves involved in such a rigid loan situation that they cannot afford to take care of these additional needs.

EFFECT UPON OTHER EXPENDITURES

In considering home ownership the family must recognize the effect upon other aspects of family living. How does the level of living of the new community compare with their present manner of living? Will they feel compelled to increase expenditures in order to keep up with the Joneses? If they cannot do so will they be unhappy in their new associations? How does the price level in the stores which will be available compare with those patronized at present? Will new furniture be required? What will be the costs of new furnishings such as draperies, rugs and so forth? Will transportation costs be increased? If the new home is in a suburb distances to work may be important and if public transportation facilities are not adequate the family may even feel the need of an additional car, an expensive item.

MONTHLY COSTS DURING PAYMENT OF LOAN

The monthly costs of home ownership depend upon five factors: the interest rate at which the home owner can obtain a loan, the length of the time over which the loan will be paid, and costs of taxes, insurance, and

²² See pp. 418-419.

The time periods given in Table 13-1 may seem overly conservative since under the Housing Act of 1961, mortgage loans with a maximum term of 35 years became legal with an extension to 40 years possible in certain hardship cases. Although monthly payments are low in such cases because the loan is retired over such a long period of time the examples above would indicate that the interest paid over a 35 year period will be very great. Actually there is the chance that the buyer will never in the lifetime of his family as a group own the house free of debt. During the congressional hearings on the bill Dr. Robert C. Weaver, Housing Administrator, told the Senate: "This is not home ownership in the conventional sense as you and I have known it. It is something between home ownership and rental."²³

Another problem arises with such long term mortgage loans that the house depreciates faster than the loan is repaid. (See Figure 13-2.) If the

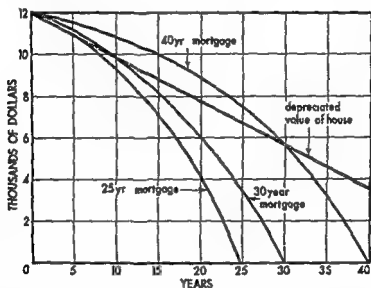


FIGURE 13-2. Is Your House Worth as Much as You Owe on It?

Adapted from *Changing Times*, September, 1961, p. 111

The curved lines on this chart show how the outstanding debt declines over the years for mortgages of 25, 30, and 40 year periods.

The diagonal shows how much of the value of the house depreciates at the same time.

Note that with both the 30 and 40 year mortgages there are periods during which the house is worth less than is owed on it.

When the debt curve falls below the value line the gap between the two shows the relative size of the owner's equity—the excess of value over unrepaid indebtedness.

This chart assumes a \$12,000 nothing-down purchase, depreciation at 2% a year.

²³ "Long Mortgage or Short? *Changing Times* Vol. III No. 9 (September 1961) p. 20

\$15,000 house

purchase price of house
down payment
amount to be borrowed
annual amortization costs per \$1000
borrowed
number of thousands borrowed
annual payment on loan
number of years to be paid
total payments on loan
(principal and interest)
amount originally borrowed
cost of interest on loan
purchase price of house
actual cost of buying house

MANAGEMENT APPLIED TO SPECIFIC RESOURCES		
	interest rate 5 per cent	
	if paid in 10 years	if paid in 20 years
	\$15 000	\$15 000
	5 000	5 000
	<u>\$10 000</u>	<u>\$10 000</u>
	\$ 127	\$ 79
	$\times 10$	$\times 10$
	<u>\$ 1 270</u>	<u>\$ 790</u>
	$\times 10$	$\times 20$
	<u>\$12 700</u>	<u>\$15 800</u>
	— 10 000	— 10 000
	\$ 2 700	\$ 5 800
	15 000	15 000
	<u>\$17 700</u>	<u>\$20 800</u>

The advantages of repaying the loan as promptly as possible are obvious and at this point many people will decide that the 10 year term is best because it saves \$3100 in interest over the longer payment period. However the answer is not quite so simple. Can the family afford the higher monthly costs? In the case where the loan is paid in 10 years the monthly costs of repayment of the loan are \$106 monthly ($1270 \div 12$) and in the longer repayment period they are only \$66 monthly.

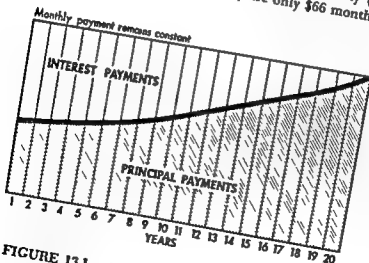


FIGURE 13-1 Amortized Payment of Mortgages

Adapted from *Home Information Service Better Home*
January 1936 p 17

America's Future

above a family would need a monthly income of about \$628 if they are to purchase this house and repay the loan in 10 years a monthly income of \$468 would make this house possible if the loan were repaid in 20 years

One method of handling the problem of paying as quickly as possible without making payments too inflexible is to secure a mortgage with payments based on normal expectations of the family's ability to repay but with a clause allowing prepayment of payment before the date due. In this case if the family is able to repay the loan at a more rapid rate than was anticipated they can do so without committing themselves to the higher rate. The total costs of credit for the loan can be reduced by shopping to find the lowest interest rate available repaying as rapidly as is feasible including a prepayment clause in the mortgage and by making the largest down payment possible without jeopardizing the reserves of the family.

MAXIMUM WISE HOUSING INVESTMENT

For most families housing claims about 20 to 30 per cent of the family income. Another rule of thumb frequently quoted is that a family can afford to spend $2\frac{1}{2}$ times their assured annual income in buying a home. Whether or not they can afford to spend more or less than this amount depends not only upon their income and its stability but upon the amount of savings available the demands upon their income and their ability to cut housing costs by doing some of the work themselves. Therefore in order to determine the total amount they can afford to spend for a house the family should determine (a) the amount of money which can be allowed monthly for housing after all other expenses and an emergency fund are considered (b) the loan conditions obtainable based on the family's credit rating and (c) the amount of savings available for a down payment after deducting savings for other needs such as education and emergencies and after allowing money for preliminary and extra costs.

Once these facts are known the information in Table 13.2 can be used to determine the total amount the family can afford to spend for a home. To use this table find the Budget Allowance for Housing which the family has agreed is possible in (a) above and read across the table to the rate of interest which the family can obtain and the number of years the loan will run. This figure is the maximum amount of the mortgage loan which this family's budget can finance. This total plus the down payment which the family intends to make represents an estimate of the total cost of the house they can afford. The mortgage figures include the cost of taxes insurance and upkeep on the amount of the loan only so that the cost of these items in relation to the down payment should be

house was sold in the open market or at a foreclosure sale and the proceeds did not fully cover the mortgage debt the owner ordinarily would be held liable for the balance. This is a fact which is frequently not understood by home owners who assume that the house is full security for the debt they have assumed.²⁴

Amortization costs are only part of the monthly total for housing costs which includes insurance taxes and repairs as well. The title to the property is held by the owner and he is fully responsible for them. The figures given for these items in Table 13-1 show average annual costs totalling \$41 per thousand. Wherever possible the prospective buyer should substitute for these figures the costs typical of his area. Taxes usually average $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent of the assessed value of the property not just the value of the loan. Fire insurance ranges from $\frac{1}{4}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent of the price of the house. Maintenance costs average about $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. Maintenance costs tend to increase with the years and if a house several years old is purchased a larger amount should be set aside for maintenance than if the house were new.

In order to show the estimated monthly housing costs including taxes insurance and upkeep figures are given below for each of the two situations illustrated above.

	10 years	20 years
Total annual payment on loan (terms 5 per cent for 10 and 20 years respectively)		
Annual cost of taxes insurance and maintenance for property valued at \$15 000 (\$41 per thousand)	\$1 270	\$ 790
Total annual cost for housing	615	615
Monthly cost for housing	\$1 885	\$1 405
	\$ 157	\$ 117

It will be necessary for the family to consider carefully whether or not they can pay either of these amounts monthly for the number of years of the loan without causing undue sacrifice in other areas of family living or without danger of losing at a later date what they have invested in the house. In studying this question it is well to remember that costs of family living increase as children grow older. A frequently stated rule of thumb for the amount a family can spend is that housing should not cost more than one fourth of the income after taxes or roughly one week's take home pay. Using this measuring rod in the examples given

²⁴ John P. Dean "Don't Get Stuck With a House" *Harper's Magazine* Vol 19 (July 1945) pp 90-96

added. Some mortgage payments include these items; others do not. However, in either case they must be recognized in estimating the costs of home ownership.

ANNUAL COSTS AFTER LOAN IS REPAYED

If one is to be entirely accurate in recognizing the costs of home ownership, he must add the value of interest foregone, since an increasingly large amount of money is being invested which might have been placed elsewhere at interest. If this expense of home ownership is recognized, the costs are not so drastically reduced when the home is completely paid for as is commonly assumed. Although the amortization costs have been eliminated, costs of maintenance, taxes, and insurance continue. Taxes may be lower as the appraised value of the house decreases; maintenance, on the other hand, can be expected to increase. The actual outlay of money remains significant, and the total costs, including depreciation and interest foregone, may be only slightly smaller than during the period of payment. Savings are available during the first years of purchase by taking advantage of income tax deductions for interest; these savings decrease as the proportion of payments going toward interest decreases.

Methods of Payment

After the preceding discussion, it is evident that most families cannot even consider cash as a method of paying the entire purchase price of a house. Four fifths of all nonfarm house purchases in 1958 used mortgage credit; the median debt incurred was \$12,300, or about three fourths of the median purchase price of \$12,300.²⁵

MORTGAGES

When a family has to borrow money to purchase a house, the loan is secured by a mortgage or legal document which gives the mortgage holder (or mortgagee) a lien or claim upon the property should the borrower (or mortgagor) default in payment of the loan. Mortgages are usually classified as straight or amortized, depending upon the manner of repayment.

Types

Straight. It is the straight mortgage which frequently provided the crisis in early Western movies. The villain about to foreclose the mort-

²⁵ "1959 Survey of Consumer Finances: Housing of Nonfarm Families," *Federal Reserve Bulletin*, Vol. 45, No. 9 (September 1959), p. 1099.

TABLE 13-2. How Expensive a Home Can You Afford?

TABLE 13-2. How Expensive a Home Can You Afford?

Budget Allowance for Housing		Amount of Mortgage Which Budget Will Finance	Down Payment (Fill in)	Taxes Insurance Upkeep on Value of Down pay ment (Fill in)	Total Amount You Can Spend For a Home (Fill in)				
Monthly	Annual	5% Interest	10 Years	6% Interest					
		10 Years	15 Years	20 Years					
\$ 25	\$ 300	\$ 1 790	\$ 2 210	\$ 2 500	\$ 1 720	\$ 2 110	\$ 2 360		
30	360	2 140	2 650	3 000	2 070	2 540	2 830		
35	420	2 500	3 090	3 500	2 410	2 960	3 310		
40	480	2 860	3 530	4 000	2 760	3 380	3 780		
50	600	3 570	4 410	5 000	3 450	4 230	4 720		
60	720	4 290	5 290	6 000	4 140	5 070	5 670		
80	960	5 710	7 060	8 000	5 520	6 760	7 560		
100	1 200	7 140	8 820	10 000	6 700	8 450	9 450		
125	1 500	8 930	11 030	12 500	8 620	10 560	11 810		
150	1 800	10 620	13 200	14 970	10 230	12 590	14 150		
175	2 100	12 390	15 400	17 460	11 940	14 690	16 510		
200	2 400	14 160	17 600	19 960	13 650	16 790	18 870		
225	2 700	15 930	19 800	22 450	15 350	18 890	21 230		
250	3 000	17 700	22 000	24 950	17 060	20 980	23 590		

Reprinted by permission of the University of Illinois Small Home Council from its copyrighted publication, 1951, p. 6.

Reprinted by permission of the University of Illinois Small Homes Council from its copyrighted publication, *Factors of the Home* circular A 13 (December 1951) p. 6.

Factors of the Home circular A 13 (December 1951)

\$20 000 The dollar limit on a one family home mortgage is \$25 000. New construction may have maximum mortgage maturity of 35 years mortgages covering existing housing mature in 30 years.

Monthly payments for FHA insured loans are arranged so that monthly payments for taxes and premiums for hazard insurance are included. A further advantage to the home owner is that FHA insured loans are available only after the appraisers are convinced that the price asked is a fair one. Although the FHA cannot be held responsible if construction faults show up at a later date it is a safeguard to the borrower.

At present most mortgages for private homes whether or not FHA insured are amortized. Some amortized mortgages are called open end mortgages. They include a clause which enables the mortgagor to obtain additional funds after the loan has been reduced without going through the formality of rewriting the mortgage. The size of loan outstanding at any time is usually restricted to the amount of the original loan.

Sources of Mortgages A variety of lending agencies grant mortgages. These include banks both commercial and savings, title and trust companies who loan their own funds, mortgage bankers who represent individuals, banks or insurance companies and savings and loan associations. Lending agencies compete for good mortgages so it is wise to shop around for a loan.

Banks Banks are among the most conservative lending agencies and national banks are restricted by law to loans of 50 to 70 per cent of the appraised value of the property depending upon maturity provisions of the loan. Trust companies are similar to banks in their operation. Most other agencies will lend only between 65 to 80 per cent of the appraised value. Larger mortgages are allowed by agencies when the mortgage is approved by the FHA or the Veterans Administration. It should be noted that one of the disadvantages of these mortgages is that considerable red tape is involved and the time required to arrange the loan is usually much longer than in other types of mortgages.

Savings and Loan Companies Savings and loan companies are cooperatives established for the express purpose of saving for or lending for home ownership. The prospective borrower must own some shares purchased outright or in installments before he can obtain the remainder needed. The interest paid by the borrower represents the earnings of the association and some people place their capital in savings and loan associations as an investment with no thought of using it for building. Mortgages given by building and loan associations are amortized. Each loan association operates under its own regulations and those of the state.

gage which the innocent heroine cannot pay is foiled at the last minute by the hero who has managed to scrape together the necessary funds. A straight mortgage is one which matures at a specific date say five years hence at which time the total amount borrowed (the principal) is due. In the meantime interest charges on the entire amount of the loan are paid at regular intervals.

Straight mortgages are further subdivided into first and second mortgages. If a borrower is unable to obtain the full amount needed under prevailing mortgage conditions he may be forced to take out a second or even a third mortgage for the remainder of the money. The difference between a first and second mortgage is that the holder of a first mortgage has prior claim to the property in case of failure to pay on the part of the mortgagor. Because of the greater risk assumed by the mortgagee interest rates on second mortgages are higher and the period allowed for payment is shorter than for first mortgages. Straight mortgages may be renewed although extra fees are usually charged.

Amortized. The introduction of amortized mortgages in which regular monthly payments cover both interest and reduction of the principal of the loan has done much to increase the ease with which families can achieve home ownership. It is this type of loan which is repaid like rent thus enabling the family to plan for housing as a regular expenditure. There is a great temptation in paying a straight mortgage to postpone accumulating funds for repayment of the principal. Furthermore the amortized mortgage costs less than a straight mortgage at the same rate of interest for a like number of years since the amount of the principal upon which interest is levied is constantly reduced.

FHA. Amortized mortgages came into wide use when the Federal Housing Administration reduced the mortgagee's risk by insuring loans for home ownership or home improvement which meet certain qualifications. With smaller risks lending agencies were willing to lend a greater proportion of the value of the property and for longer periods of time. The FHA in no case lends the money to individuals but it insures the loan made by a regular lending agency. In 1962 the interest rate for FHA insured loans is $5\frac{1}{4}$ per cent plus an insurance premium of $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. The insurance premium covers only the possibility of the mortgagor's failure to make the payments agreed upon and it does not take the place of hazard insurance which was considered in the costs of home ownership. The down payment which is required for an FHA mortgage varies with the total value of the property. It is 3 per cent of the first \$15 000 of appraised value of the house, 10 per cent of the appraised value between \$15 000 and \$20 000 and 25 per cent of the value above

home owner should have these documents or a copy of them in his possession. The note and mortgage are of course held by the lender.

SALES CONTRACTS

Another method used in the purchase of a home is known as the sales contract. It is used most often when the buyer has little or no money with which to make a down payment. Since he has little assurance that the buyer will be able to fulfill his end of the bargain, the seller retains the title to the property until it has been paid in full. In the meantime the buyer makes monthly payments on the house and is responsible for taxes, repairs, insurance, and special assessments. Should he fail to make his payments, he is evicted like any renter and usually loses all he has previously invested. If he fulfills the contract, he is given a deed and he owns the property. The sales contract obviously favors the seller who retains the title to the property, although the buyer assumes all the costs of home ownership. The buyer's investment is in jeopardy until the entire cost of the house is paid.

PURCHASE AND MAINTENANCE OF AN AUTOMOBILE

Many families, accustomed to the convenience of an automobile and unaware of the total cost of maintaining one, have never debated in their own minds whether or not they should own one. Indeed, a family may be considered odd if they do not own a car.

For some families a car is a necessity. This is true of families living in isolated communities or of those whose business requires the availability of a car. For families not in these two categories, a recognition of the cost of car ownership might well be the deciding factor. For many, however, a car will be maintained for convenience and for its status value. Today the real status involved in car ownership is based not on what kind of car a man drives, but rather on how many he owns. In 1961, 76 per cent of American families owned cars. Sixty-three per cent owned one car, 11 per cent two cars, and over 1 per cent owned three or more cars.²⁸

Significance in Budget

As was shown in Chapter II dealing with patterns of use of income, transportation ranked third in importance among budget categories. Three factors appear significant in the proportion of income spent for the

²⁸ Ben Phlegar, "How Many Autos Are In Your Garage," *The Providence Sunday Journal*, February 18, 1962, p. A 31.

where it is located. Although a number of states have no statutory limits for these loans, the maximum is usually 75 to 80 per cent of the appraised value. Federally chartered savings and loan associations may lend up to 90 per cent of the appraised value for up to 25 years. A savings and loan association should be evaluated either as a lending or an investment agency on the basis of its management over a period of about twenty years and the conditions under which it will grant loans. For example, associations frequently limit loans to property located within a 50 mile radius.

Life Insurance Companies Most life insurance companies are interested in making first mortgage amortized loans on houses in well-developed sections. These loans are made through mortgage bankers or local realtors and although the conditions vary from state to state, provide from one half to two-thirds of the value of the property to be repaid in 10 years.

Once the family has found a loan plan which fits their needs, they are ready to make application for the loan, indicating the amount of money desired, the terms requested, and a description of the property which will be used as security. Time must be allowed for an investigation of the family's credit rating by the lending agency and for an appraisal of the property. The lending agency's appraisal is based not upon current market value, but upon the value of the property as a security over the entire period of the loan. In the case of FHA insured and VA guaranteed loans, the price of the property cannot exceed the appraisal figure of the government representative. The lending agency then states the amount it is willing to lend. If this amount is not enough, the family may approach another reliable lending agency. Should the amount needed still not be available, the family should consider whether or not there is some particular reason for the lack of willingness to lend which can be remedied, or whether the home ownership program proposed is too elaborate for them.

Legal Documents Involved If the loan is approved, the lending agency usually issues a letter of commitment which outlines the terms of the mortgage and enables the borrower to proceed with agreements to purchase the property. In closing the loan, title records of the property must be examined and certain papers signed. The documents usually involved in the closing of a loan include a note or bond which is a promise to repay the money borrowed, the mortgage which pledges the property as security for payment of the debt, a deed to the property which is evidence of ownership, and finally either a certificate of title which assures that the title to the property is in the name of the purchaser, or an abstract which legally describes the property and its history of ownership. The

overhead costs are largely determined at the time the car is purchased. These costs of the automobile include depreciation, interest foregone, insurance, license fees and/or taxes. While the money allowed for depreciation is not spent annually, a recognition of the value which has been used up is essential if the total costs of car ownership are determined.

Depreciation is greatest during the first year of a car's life, gradually reducing thereafter. A typical new domestic car may lose as much as one third of its original value by the end of the first year and one half by the end of the second year.³¹ However, for a family who intends to drive a car for a number of years, the average figure is most practical. For example, a 1958 car which had been priced when new at \$2300 had an average trade-in value of \$1550 a year later, or a depreciation of \$750 in one year. Had this car been held for four years, the depreciation figured on a resale value of \$735 in 1962 would be \$1555 or an average of \$388 yearly. The trade-in value of a specific car depends upon many factors including the demand for used cars, the demand for that particular make and model, and the condition of the car itself.

As in housing, the funds used in purchase of a car might have been invested, bearing interest, so interest foregone is a legitimate cost of car ownership. In figuring costs of car ownership, depreciation is not included if the family makes payments on a car during the current year. If the family is paying for a car on credit, the credit charges would probably be even higher than interest foregone. In the 1961 survey of consumer finances by the Survey Research Center of the University of Michigan, 55 per cent of all spending units purchasing a new car used installment credit, the average amount of credit being \$1670. 43 per cent of the spending units purchasing used cars incurred a mean installment debt of \$650.³²

Insurance costs vary with the size and weight of the car, the annual mileage accumulated, the accident history of the driver, the location of the family, and the ages of the owner and drivers. While many families do not carry insurance, the fact that 47 states have laws which require both security to satisfy any judgments and proof of financial responsibility for the future following an accident attests to its importance. The other three states, Massachusetts, New York, and North Carolina, have compulsory insurance laws. Even among those families who do carry insurance, the coverage is frequently limited to liability insurance which covers claims of other persons in case of accident, but does not cover the

³¹ The Awful Truth about Car Depreciation. *Changing Times*, Vol. 15, No. 9 (September 1961), p. 38.

³² George Katona et al. 1961 Survey of Consumer Finances. Monograph No. 24 (Ann Arbor: Michigan The Survey Research Center, University of Michigan, 1962), Table 3-14, p. 58.

automobile and other transportation the stage of the life cycle the location of the family and the size of income Older families spent less (14 per cent of a somewhat smaller income) than did young families without children (17 per cent)²⁷ farm families tended to spend more for transportation at low incomes than did urban families although the figures available are not directly comparable as to the time factor and the proportion spent for transportation generally increased with income for both urban and rural families In urban families surveyed in 1950 7.2 per cent was spent for transportation by families with incomes under \$1 000 the proportion increased to 15.5 per cent at \$5 000 and levelled off at that level until incomes reached \$10 000 a sharp decrease to 12.8 per cent occurred at incomes over \$10 000²⁸ Figures for 1955 expenditures by farm families showed 10 per cent of total consumption was spent by families with incomes under \$2 000 while 17 per cent was spent for transportation by families in the \$5 000-\$7 500 income group Both cars and trucks used for family transportation were covered in these figures with 13 per cent of the farm operator families owning only a truck and 74 per cent owning a car²⁹ Car ownership in large cities notably New York Philadelphia and Boston is lower than in other cities this factor was taken into account by the weighting of figures for transportation for both car owners and nonowners in the 1959 City Workers family budgets³⁰

Another indication of the extremely high costs of car maintenance is the mileage rate paid by business organizations for their employees A rate of from seven to ten cents per mile is considered legitimate Some families do not recognize that this mileage fee is intended to cover replacement of the car when expedient as well as operating costs and feel sure they could make money on such a plan However profit minded business men are not likely to provide more than is necessary and many car owners find that a rate of eight cents per mile is not sufficient.

Costs

OVERHEAD COSTS

Costs of car ownership may be classified under two groups - overhead or fixed costs and flexible or operating costs The first group is the more important of the two groups and in general these costs are related to the weight of the car and its relative expensiveness Thus

²⁷ See Table 11.9

²⁸ See Table 11.7

²⁹ *Farm Family Spending in the United States* Agr. Information Bull. No. 192 Agricultural Research Service USDA June 1958 pp. 30-31

³⁰ Helen H. Lamale and Margaret S. Stottz op cit Table 7 Fin. 19 p. 80

car owner himself. The major reason for this limited coverage is the cost of the additional protection.

While states vary in their charges for registering cars and licensing operators, the former is usually based on the horsepower and/or weight of the car or some similar basis.

As will be seen in Table 13.3 the annual costs of automobile replacement and operation for a new car to be used six years was reported to be \$850.33 for a salaried worker in San Francisco based on September 1961 prices. The overhead costs including installment purchase of the car prorated over six years, insurance fees and licenses amount to \$589.23 or 69 per cent of the total cost. In the case of a used car owned by a wage earner family in the same locality, total costs were estimated at \$570.08 with approximately 51 per cent for overhead costs.²³ Perhaps a major reason that these costs are frequently unrecognized is due to the fact that they involve large irregular expenditures which may be overlooked or forgotten when the cost of the automobile is being discussed casually.

OPERATING COSTS

Operating costs are based primarily upon mileage but surprisingly enough account roughly for less than one third of the total cost of car ownership with a car purchased new. They include gas and oil, repairs

²³ The Heller Committee for Research in Social Economics, *Quantity and Cost Budgets for Two Income Levels* (Berkeley, Calif.: University of California, 1962), pp. 41-42, 78-79.

-
- (a) The cars used are the most comparable to those priced in 1960—currently the lowest priced models of the three low cost standard size (as distinct from compact) automobiles. Extra equipment includes radio and heater.
 - (b) The car traded in is the same make and has the same general specification as the one purchased, but is six years older.
 - (c) The average length of contract is 36 months. The installment charge is calculated on the cost of the car, equipment, and 1961 license and registration fee after the trade-in allowance and an average cash down payment of \$87. The figure which includes the sales tax includes an installment charge on the sales tax.
 - (d) Sales tax applies to oil, new and recapped tires, batteries and parts for repair.
 - (e) Gasoline is an average of regular and ethyl, weighted equally.
 - (f) The unit prices of tires and batteries are the exchange prices of each.
 - (g) Salaried worker population weights are used in determining the area average.
 - (h) Comprehensive and collision insurance and vehicle license fees are based on the assumption that 1956 through 1961 cars are owned. Collision insurance is computed from rates for the Safe Driver Plan, which allow 20% credit for drivers who had no moving traffic violations or at-fault accidents during the preceding two years.
 - (i) Bodily injury \$25,000 and \$50,000; property damage \$5,000. Cost is based on rates for Class 1A—that is, a passenger car used solely for pleasure and driven by no one under twenty-five years of age. See (b) for safe driver credit also applicable here.

Good habits of operation are important. Steady driving at economical speeds will result in fuel economy. Fuel consumption is related to three factors: rate of acceleration, friction of running parts, and resistance of the air through which the car must be driven. The effects of rapid acceleration increase with the weight of the car. Smooth starts and steady and moderate speed will reduce the fuel expenditure.

The light touch is recommended for economical driving. In addition to gradual acceleration noted above, warming up the engine by driving slowly until it is warm instead of idling it, using the brakes as little as possible, shifting to high gear as soon as possible, particularly in cars with automatic transmission, are all habits which can increase gas mileage and cut car costs.²⁶

Fuel is required to overcome the friction of the moving parts of the car. Using correct grades of oil and driving at lower speeds reduces friction. Low speeds also reduce heat generated in tires, a common cause of tire failure.

Careful consideration when a car is purchased may result in significant savings in both overhead and operating costs since fuel used varies with the size and horsepower of the automobile.

Family buyers of cars fall into several groups according to whether they buy new or used cars, how frequently they replace their cars, and the price range of the cars purchased. Frequently the first car purchased is a used car. Then when it is replaced, the trade-in value may make a new car possible by reducing the amount of cash necessary. In 1960, 18 per cent of all spending units interviewed by the Survey Research Center at the University of Michigan purchased used cars while only 9 per cent purchased new cars.²⁷

In deciding whether to buy a new or a used car, one must balance the lower depreciation costs of the used car against increased costs of repairs. The most significant factor here is the condition of the car itself. Since dealers can give a car treatments which make it appear to be in excellent condition, the buyer should be observant and, if possible, evaluate the car's condition himself. Suggestions ranging from a 10-minute check on the lot to a thorough check including a road test to be conducted by the buyer and a mechanic's check are described in a *Consumer Reports* article on how to buy used cars.²⁸ The size of the car is also significant in the purchase of a new or used car. The money required to purchase a heavyweight used car might be sufficient to buy a smaller new car, particularly since the introduction of domestic compact cars. By 1961

²⁶ "More Miles Per Gallon," *Changing Times*, Vol. 13, No. 8 (August 1959), pp. 19-21.

²⁷ 1961 Survey of Consumer Finances, op. cit. Table 2.8, p. 33.

²⁸ Consumers Union of U.S., Inc., *Buying a Used Car*, *Consumer Reports*, Vol. 25 (May 1960), pp. 255-263.

and replacements of such items as tires and batteries washing and waxing and lubrication jobs. The e costs are generally recognized by automobile owners because they cannot be ignored the money must be forthcoming or the car cannot be used. In Table 13.3 the figures are based on average costs with an annual mileage of 7 000 miles.

Although many of the items listed in Table 13.3 will vary from situation to situation and are therefore open to discussion the table illustrates two points clearly—the fact that maintenance of an automobile is very expensive and the fact that overhead costs represent a considerably greater proportion of the total cost of automobile ownership than do operating costs.

In view of the increasing number of multiple-car families some information about the cost of a second car is important. Although one may acquire the second car by not disposing of a car already owned this increases the cost of the second car whether new or used because there is no trade in. In deciding whether a family can afford a second car it is important to remember that overhead costs range from 50 to 70 per cent of the total cost and that these are quite inflexible that mileage for two cars will no doubt be greater than for one car although the second car will probably be driven less than the primary car and that if a used car is purchased to cut depreciation costs operating costs may be expected to be higher per mile.³⁴

WAYS TO CUT CAR COSTS

Since overhead costs of car ownership are inflexible and since they account for approximately two-thirds of the total cost of owning a new car a family will find that the total costs of car ownership are comparatively inflexible. The only way to cut transportation costs drastically (and this possibility is not available to all families) is to use public transportation facilities rather than privately owned cars.

There are however several ways in which these costs can be reduced somewhat. Prolonging the useful life of the car results in a smaller amount of depreciation to be charged to each year's use. Mileage is not so significant a factor here as proper care. If worn mechanical parts are replaced as need arises and if proper care is given to body and tires the life of the car can be greatly increased. There is no one answer to what age is best for turning a car in on a new one however a large firm of fleet-car managers suggests that today a well maintained car can be driven on the average 60 000 miles before repairs make it uneconomical to keep the car longer.³⁵

³⁴ Can You Afford a Second Car? *Changing Times* Vol 10 (April 1956) pp 17-19.

³⁵ The Awful Truth About Car Depreciation *op cit* p 38.

and social as well as physical health. The concept of physical health is currently enlarging to cover all stages of the life cycle including old age. Some changes of aging once considered inevitable are now recognized as symptoms whose causes may be treated so that even the last stage of the cycle can be one of positive health.

As in all aspects of family living the question as to what constitutes adequacy arises. Little has been done to establish such standards for health. The criteria which were used for Selective Service during wartime defined a health level much higher than was typical because large numbers of young men were rejected many of whom had been thought of as having an acceptable level of health in civilian life.

The Problems of Medical Costs

Medical costs present a problem throughout the major portion of the family's life span. Beginning with the birth of children the family faces important medical costs. Young children particularly after they pass the dangerous years of infancy are generally quite healthy. Certain communicable disease and accidents are however a constant problem during this period. For families who can afford them preventive services such as inoculations regular examinations regardless of any symptoms and corrective dental care are usually provided during this time. Furthermore parents are more likely to call a physician for a child when they would not do it for themselves under similar conditions. Dublin reports that the incidence of illness after beginning with a very high rate among infants drops sharply to a minimum at ages 15 to 19 years among females and 20 to 24 years among males. From that point it increases gradually with age.³⁹ Casual observation verifies the fact that health is a problem in old age.

EXTENT OF ILLNESS

In the National Health Survey⁴⁰ made by the United States Department of Health Education and Welfare it was found that the number of restricted activity days per person for the year from July 1959 to June 1960 for health reasons averaged for all ages 15.5 days for urban 16.5 for rural nonfarm and 18.7 for rural farm individuals. Individuals under 20 averaged respectively 11.0 11.2 and 9.6 restricted activity days. This rank order was reversed for individuals over 65 with urban people aver

³⁹ Louis I. Dublin, *The Facts of Life from Birth to Death* (New York: Macmillan 1951) p. 82.

⁴⁰ A program involving a series of surveys authorized by Congress in July 1956.

MANAGEMENT APPLIED TO SPECIFIC RESOURCES
approximately one third of all domestic autos purchased new were compacts

Whether the car is new or used standard or compact the prospective buyer should consider the comparative operating and overhead costs since these may be largely determined by the car selected This decision is a significant one in its effect upon use of family resources Few families keep accurate account of their car expenses but even a general understanding of the costs involved will be of value in the management of their resources It can challenge them to see that they get their money's worth from this large expenditure The importance of fixed costs has been stressed but this in no way invalidates the possibility of saving through cutting of operating costs

BUDGETING FOR CAR EXPENSES

Up to this point the total costs of car ownership have been discussed Some of these costs namely depreciation and interest foregone are implicit and may not appear in the budget in any given year A prudent family can however recognize these costs by providing savings for car replacement These funds may serve a dual purpose In the year in which a car is purchased the per cent of the budget devoted to the car may well be doubled or tripled While many cars are purchased on credit systematic savings before the car is purchased will not only eliminate the costs of credit but the savings may have earned interest as well

MEDICAL CARE

What most families are interested in is not medical care but health It is perhaps an indication of the difficulties involved in providing a comprehensive program for positive health that this aspect of family financial planning is usually referred to as provision for medical care Most medical care today is of the curative rather than the preventive type another evidence of the negative approach common to health today It is recognized however that a positive health program involves far more than adequate medical care Health is to some extent determined by housing conditions suitable food and freedom from anxieties

The Goal—Positive Health

The charter of the World Health Organization defines health as the state of complete physical mental and social well being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity This definition embraces mental

Type of Expenditure	Expenditure	Per cent
Medical expenses	\$352	52
Doctor	\$158	
Hospital	180	
Medicines	14	
Infant goods	247	36
Maternity expenses	79	12
Total outlay ⁴⁴	\$678	100

However not all the outlay was made by the parents of the babies. Their actual expenditure was only \$260 which included medical expenses not covered by insurance together with purchased and home produced maternity and infant goods. *Changing Times* reports that the average expenditure for medical costs per birth increased from \$193 in 1952-1953 to \$271 in 1957-1958. In the latter year an average of 69 per cent of the medical costs was met by insurance leaving \$84 to be paid by the parents of the baby.⁴⁵

American families spend an average of 5½ per cent of their incomes on medical care. This figure however covers wide individual variations. In 1950 annual expenditures ranged from 7.2 per cent for families with incomes of under \$1000 to 4.1 per cent for families with incomes over \$10,000.⁴⁶ In 1960 the average expenditure for medical care was \$110 per person.⁴⁷ In the City Workers' Budgets for four geographically representative cities in 1959 the percentage allowed for routine costs of medical care ranged from 4.8 per cent in Chicago to 4.9 per cent in Washington D.C. and 6.3 per cent in San Francisco.⁴⁸

Medical costs showed a rapid increase between 1946 and 1952 as did most goods and services. Between 1952 and 1955 there was a period of relative stability with services including medical services increasing nine per cent in the five year period between 1955 and 1960 medical care increased 22 per cent accounting for about one-tenth of the change in the all items index and for about one-fifth in the past year. These increases were due primarily to increases in services rather than the commodities included in medical care. Increased hospital costs due largely to increased payrolls and increased use of hospitals by insured are reflected in increased hospitalization insurance premiums. Following

⁴⁴ Marian MacNab, Young Families—Financial Management, *Journal of Home Economics* Vol. 55 (December 1961) pp. 83-4, Table 3. Source of data: L. S. Archbold, "Estimated Dollar Outlay in Connection with the Birth of the First Baby," unpublished Master's thesis, Cornell University, September 1960.

⁴⁵ Budgeting for Medical Bills, Vol. II, No. 6 (June 1961), p. 16.

⁴⁶ See Table 11.7.

⁴⁷ Source Book of Health Insurance Data, op. cit. p. 51.

⁴⁸ See Table 11.10.

MANAGEMENT APPLIED TO SPECIFIC RESOURCES

aging 323 restricted activity days rural nonfarm 165 and rural farm 518 days Restricted activity days include those spent in bed and other days on which the individual cut down his activity because of illness⁴¹

Regardless of the stage of the family cycle some families tend to be illness prone or to have more than their share of illness Income is linked with incidence of illness since families on relief had proportionately more acute illness than did families with incomes of \$3000 or over and even a higher ratio of chronic illness⁴² Location of the family at the type of industry engaged in also were positively correlated with the rate of illness

UNPREDICTABILITY A MAJOR PROBLEM

One of the major problems of planning for medical care lies in the unpredictability of needs A family may have little or no illness for a long period and then a number of illnesses or one serious illness may cause medical costs to skyrocket A 1958 study by the Health Information Foundation reports that while 20.2 per cent of the families in the United States either had no gross medical bills or spent under \$50 for medical care 14 per cent spent between \$400 and \$749 and 8 per cent paid medical bills of more than \$750 in that year⁴³ Thus the costs of medical care fall unequally on different families in any one year

ROUTINE COSTS

The normal or routine costs of maintaining good health can be estimated and planned for as regular expenditures These include costs of various kinds of health insurance pregnancy and child birth periodic examinations by the physician dentist and oculist first aid supplies and so forth It is the unexpected long illness or one demanding expensive special care which presents a major problem for families

The costs of pregnancy vary widely throughout the country and according to the type of hospital facilities provided According to a study of the dollar outlays in connection with the birth of a first child the average costs were

⁴¹ Eljah L. White The National Health Survey Program and Selected Rural Health Indicators talk given at the 39th Annual Agricultural Outlook Conference Washington D C Thursday November 16 1961 (Memo) p 9 Source of data National Health Survey Series B No 29

⁴² Beulah Amidon Who Can Afford Health? Public Affairs Pamphlet No 27 rev 1944 p 11

⁴³ Source Book of Health Insurance Data (New York Health Insurance Institute 1961) pp 54 and 57

family expenditures but if it is the breadwinner who is disabled there is a loss of income as well

Ways of Meeting Medical Costs

Two major ways of lessening the burden of medical care are recognized. The first a long term approach is to reduce the need for medical services by a broad program of preventive care and the second is to spread the cost of payment through the application of the insurance principle. At present both methods are in use but to a small extent in comparison with their potentialities.

PREVENTIVE CARE

Much preventive care is carried on by public health departments and is a source of considerable direct income to families but a great deal of it is the individual family's responsibility.

Although a particular family may never visit the public health department its members are protected through a safe water supply regulation of sanitary conditions in food establishments inoculation against communicable diseases and so forth. An adequate public health department provides seven basic services (1) the keeping of accurate records (2) controlling communicable diseases (3) enforcing sanitary regulations (4) operating prenatal clinics and child health centers (5) maintaining testing laboratories (6) conducting a continuous health education program and (7) fighting chronic diseases. Additional special services for the aging could be added.⁶ This comprehensive program is however not widespread. It was estimated as recently as 1952 that two thirds of the existing health departments were inadequately staffed and equipped and that 40 million Americans lived in areas with no local full time health department.⁵¹

Research serves as another preventive measure by providing the knowledge which brings more and more diseases under control. Funds for research need to be expended tremendously. In 1947 about \$20 million was available for medical research (all sources) compared with \$30 million available to the U. S. Department of Agriculture for research in plant and animal diseases and \$275 million for industrial research. In 1946 only about \$100,000 was spent in dental research compared to \$400 million spent in trying to palliate mouth diseases.⁷ To be effective research must be applied which in turn necessitates increased personnel and facilities.

⁶ Albert G. Maisel, *Your Neighbor's Health Is Your Business* Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 180 1952 p. 4

⁵¹ *Ibid* p. 11

⁷ Persia Campbell, *The Consumer Interest* (New York: Harper and Row, 1949) p. 39

Congressional hearings on the cost of new drugs there were some reductions in manufacturers prices of prefabricated prescriptions. The limited number of doctors the high cost of their education and the investment required for complex equipment are reasons given for the gradual increase in the fees for physicians services. Figure 13-3 shows the distribution of the medical care dollar in 1960. Although there may be a

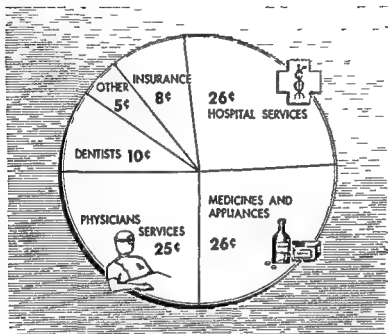


FIGURE 13-3 Distribution of the Medical Care Dollar, 1960

Ad pt d f om *Survey of Current Business* U.S. Dept. of Commerce, Washington, D.C.
Vol. 41, No. 7, July 1961, p. 14

possible moderation in the rate of increase it can be expected that medical costs will continue to rise particularly with an increasing population to strain facilities further and with a raised standard of what constitutes adequate medical care.⁴⁹

A final reason why provisions of care in medical emergencies for many families is difficult is that in wage earning groups particularly the economic loss is two-fold. Not only are the costs of illness added to other

⁴⁹ Ethel D. Hoover, "Outlook for Medical Care Costs in 1962," talk at the 39th Annual Agricultural Outlook Conference, Washington, D.C., November 16, 1961 (Mimeographed), pp. 2-4.

PREPAYMENT OF COSTS

Since major medical costs are unpredictable yet inevitable large numbers of families have turned to prepayment plans for meeting these costs. These plans are based on actuarial figures which show the average amount of disability in various groups and therefore the individual premiums necessary to cover the needs of the entire group. Prepayment plans are available from a number of sources. These include commercial insurance companies which sell policies to individuals and which operate for a profit; various nonprofit groups such as those set up by medical societies or groups of physicians; consumer cooperatives; institutions like universities; businesses; or government. Nonprofit organizations provide the greatest protection per dollar spent and usually provide group policies. Some plans provide cash benefits; others provide the actual services. Five types of health insurance protection are available: hospital expense; surgical expense; regular medical expense; and major medical expense pay for direct medical expenses; the fifth type, loss of income protection, helps replace earned income lost during disability periods.

Voluntary Plans The most widely used nonprofit prepayment plan is the Blue Cross. It is organized on a local or regional basis with the rates and benefits differing from plan to plan. However, the Hospital Service Commission, located in Chicago, coordinates the many plans and supervises standards. In general, Blue Cross covers only hospital costs for a specified period of days. Closely associated with the Blue Cross plans are Blue Shield plans which offer a variety of coverages ranging from surgical to surgical and medical or general medical benefits. It must be repeated that the coverage under Blue Cross and Blue Shield plans varies widely from one state to another. Both Blue Cross and Blue Shield plans are organized under medical associations or groups of physicians. Another nonprofit prepayment plan which is privately operated is the Health Insurance Plan of Greater New York, known as HIP. It is available to employed groups and their dependents and services are provided by groups of physicians, dentists, psychiatrists and other specialists who practice as units. This plan is widely known because of its comprehensive coverage of preventive, diagnostic and therapeutic medical and surgical care whether provided in the home, office or hospital.

The newest type of health insurance protection is that which provides for catastrophic illnesses. It may be provided on either a group, individual or family policy basis. This insurance ordinarily begins where customary hospital, medical and surgical policies leave off. It has a deductible clause requiring that the insured pay the first cost of the illness. This avoids overlapping payments with the other health insurance

A Committee of Consultants on Medical Research to the Subcommittee on the Department of Labor and Health Education and Welfare of the United States Senate stated ⁵³

The magnitude of the problems of disease and disability confronting our people today is still so vast as to be beyond the comprehension of most of us. The nature of our enemies has shifted from the communicable diseases to the chronic disorders and especially to cardiovascular renal disease cancer mental illness and other problems predominating in the older age group which has been greatly increased in numbers. Aside from the unhappiness and tragedy represented in the incidence ratio of these conditions we should remember that the present cost of disease and disability to our nation is estimated as at least \$35 billion a year. Only through medical research and the application of its findings can these losses be reduced.

While preventive care appears to be largely the function of government and/or the medical profession as a whole the individual family can do much in this area. Apathy on the part of many families is without question a factor in the inadequate state of health departments. The first step in improving health facilities in a particular community is frequently a survey to determine what health services are available. Such a survey can be sparked by a single individual or organization and facts can lead eventually to a sound plan for community action. Making use of community facilities is another way in which individuals and families can cooperate. Frequently people again no doubt through apathy fail to take advantage of immunization programs free chest X rays and so forth. Families also can do much to reduce accidents which take a tremendous annual toll in lives and money. The money cost has been estimated at \$7 billion annually when loss in wages medical expense insurance overhead costs and property damage are considered. Home accidents cause more than half of the 10 million disabling injuries and more than one third of the fatalities due to accidents.⁵⁴ Falls and fire are the most frequent causes of fatal accidents in the home. Still another way in which families can take a part in preventing the need for medical care is through good nutrition. Poor nutrition can be found at every income level although in many cases the amount spent is sufficient to provide an adequate diet. Some of the results of increased preventive care can be obtained with little or no increase in cost—for example improved nutrition. Other facilities such as health departments and increased research will involve large expenditures.

⁵³ *Federal Support of Medical Research*. Report of the Committee of Consultants on Medical Research to the Subcommittee on Departments of Labor and Health Education and Welfare of the Committee on Appropriations U. S. Senate 86th Cong. 2nd sess. Washington May 1960 p. xiii.

⁵⁴ Dublin *op cit* p. 242.

over the country. They do little or nothing to encourage group practice to improve hospital facilities or to increase the number of medical personnel.

The medical profession today urges the use of voluntary prepayment plans as a means of meeting the medical costs of families. This is in itself an evidence of the growing demand for some method of meeting medical costs since as recently as 1932 the *Journal of the American Medical Association* went on record as opposing voluntary insurance. At that time it approved a minority report of its Committee on the Costs of Medical Care which stated ⁵⁸

Voluntary insurance schemes are now in operation in many parts of the United States and are increasing in number and in size. It is clear that all such schemes are contrary to sound public policy and that the shortest road to the commercialization of the practice of medicine is through the supposedly rosy path of insurance.

In 1952 however the changed attitude of the medical profession was clear when one of its committees had as part of its program of action to demonstrate the value of voluntary prepaid medical care over any compulsory government controlled system of medicine ⁵⁹

Compulsory Plans In 1938 probably as an outcome of the National Health Survey of 1935-36 the government called a National Health Conference attended by representatives of labor unions, farm organizations, women's clubs, leading physicians, social workers and public health experts. An Interdepartmental Committee of the United States Government presented to this conference a five point health program which they had formulated after long study. This program was later with the exception of the fourth point approved by the American Public Health Association and the American Medical Association. The five major points of the program were ⁶⁰

1. Expansion of our public health, maternal and child health services with a special emphasis on preventing sickness.
2. Extension of hospital facilities especially in small towns and rural areas where free or low cost hospital service is practically unobtainable.
3. Provision for medical care at public expense for the one third of the population in the lower income levels unable to pay for adequate private care.
4. Measures for spreading the cost of medical care either by state systems of medical insurance or further extension of state medical services with the aid of federal subsidies.

⁵⁸ The Committee on the Costs of Medical Care (an editorial) *Journal of American Medical Association* Vol 99 No 23 (December 3 1932) p 1901.

⁵⁹ "Proceedings of the Chicago Session" *Journal of American Medical Association* Vol 149 No 9 (June 9 1957) p 871.

⁶⁰ *Amidon op cit* p 29.

plans and avoids unnecessary use of benefits since the insured must bear some of the cost. The policy also includes a coinsurance clause which requires that the insured pay a set percentage of the costs and it sets a maximum benefit which may apply either to one illness or to all payments within a policy year. The insurance covers both in-hospital and out-of-hospital expenses.

In 1960 73 per cent of the population in the United States carried some type of health insurance. The extent of coverage varied widely. Of the 132 million persons represented by this increased percentage (only 50 per cent had health insurance in 1950) nearly all had hospital expense insurance. 121 million were protected with surgical expense plans. 87.5 million had insurance covering regular medical expenses. 27 million were protected by major medical expense plans, an increase of 26 per cent since 1959, and 42 million were covered by loss of income plans.⁵⁵ In 1958 the total gross medical charges incurred by all individuals in the United States was \$16.2 billion. Of this total 19 per cent was covered by insurance benefits.⁵⁶

Urban and rural nonfarm people are considerably better off than farm residents with respect to coverage by voluntary health insurance. In 1959 more than two-thirds of both urban and rural nonfarm families had hospital insurance and almost as many had surgical insurance. At the same time only 45 per cent of the farm population were protected by voluntary insurance for hospitalization and only 40 per cent had insurance for surgical costs.⁵⁷

Two major disadvantages of voluntary prepayment plans as organized at present are evident from these figures. Not only are the benefits limited both in amount and kind, but a considerable number of families are not covered. While plans for voluntary health insurance vary, very few of them cover the costs of medical care in the home and in the doctor's office, diagnostic services, physical examinations, laboratory tests, among other things. Neither do they guarantee to pay the total hospital bill or all of the fees of the physician. Furthermore, these plans are in general based on large groups of individuals sharing the risk. Families in rural areas where the population is scattered are at a disadvantage in joining such plans. Nevertheless, their need for medical care is extreme because of the unequal distribution of medical facilities and the concentration of these facilities in large centers of population. Still, an additional limiting factor in most of these plans is that they have no control over the quality of services provided, which admittedly varies widely.

⁵⁵ 1961 Source Book of Health Insurance Data, op cit, p. 5.

⁵⁶ Statistical Abstracts of the United States, 87th ed., op cit, Table 9, p. 71.

⁵⁷ 1961 Agricultural Outlook Chartbook, U. S. Dept. of Agriculture, November 1961.

The preliminary costs of home ownership are considered along with methods of payment such as straight mortgages, amortized mortgages and sales contracts

Information helpful in determining how much a family can afford to pay for a house and how much a given house will cost under different loan conditions is given in tabular form

Since costs of interest are significant in determining the total cost of the house the family should obtain a loan which carries a low interest rate and should pay it back as quickly as is possible while providing for the other needs of the family and for emergencies

Since a large proportion of American families own automobiles and a considerable number more than one it is important that the cost of ownership be recognized

The full costs of car ownership are frequently not understood by families This is due to the fact that the largest proportion of these costs are overhead and some are imputed rather than actual

Methods of reducing car costs are suggested and the possibility is considered that car ownership may not be worth its cost in some situations However a car is a necessity for many families and important to many others for prestige values

Medical care is difficult for families to provide because of its unpredictability and its high costs Preventive care and prepayment on the insurance principle are discussed as means of reducing medical costs

Whether in the future prepaid insurance will be entirely voluntary and privately financed or whether it will be partially subsidized and under government control remains a highly controversial question Methods of providing medical care for persons over 65 are especially controversial issues

EARNING EXPERIENCES

Housing

- 1 John and Mary are to be married in June after John graduates in Civil Engineering At present John has not been placed but he hopes to find a position in the city where both of them have grown up They have found a house which meets all their requirements as far as space and number of rooms among other things are concerned Their joint savings account totals \$1000 more than the down payment the seller is asking Would you recommend that they buy this house? Any house at present?
- 2 The criteria for housing adequacy suggested by the American Public Health Association (see pp 404 ff) are quite general list specific examples which illustrate each characteristic For example tight screens on all doors and windows illustrate protection against contagion

- 5 Protection against the loss of wages during sickness by insurance Temporary disability insurance should be set up as was unemployment insurance on a federal basis permanent old age insurance should be set up by amending the federal old age insurance to pay benefits to workers who become disabled before the age of 65

The opposition to government health insurance which was apparent at that time has continued to the present making compulsory medical insurance one of the most controversial topics of the day The United States is one of the few industrial nations in the world which does not have a comprehensive health insurance system to cover all its people Approximately 30 nations have adopted compulsory insurance and the International Labor Organization of the United Nations has approved this concept for all member nations

To a limited extent the United States has approved the principle of compulsory health insurance in Workmen's Compensation laws requiring most employers in commerce and industry to pay for the cost of treatment in connection with injuries on the job This payment is usually arranged through insurance

Medical care for elderly persons is receiving increased attention The Kerr Mills Bill (1960) provides hospital and nursing home care to persons over 65 submitting to a means test It is implemented by states passing enabling legislation and matching federal funds As of February 1962 23 states and 2 territories had passed enabling legislation

Regardless of how they are supported group practice clinics offer advantages In 1946 there were 368 group practice clinics in the country as a whole In 1959 there were almost 500 in isolated rural and semi rural areas alone nearly half the country's total of 1 100 Most of the plans were not prepaid⁶¹ One of the outstanding points of clinics is that groups of medical personnel practice as units thus making possible easy consultation and sparing the patient time and energy spent in going from one specialist to another In addition when doctors band together their combined knowledge skill and jointly-owned equipment are available to the patient at a lower cost than if he approached each separately

SUMMARY

Three major budget categories have been discussed in some detail in this chapter housing transportation and medical care

Home ownership is a goal chosen by a large number of American families The major problem is to provide adequacy in housing at a cost which the family can afford

⁶¹ Agnes W. Brewster and Lucy M. Kramer "Outlook for Voluntary Health Insurance" paper given before the 39th Annual Agricultural Outlook Conference U. S. Department of Agriculture November 16 1961 (mimeographed) p. 7

Medical Care

- 1 Draw a graph for each member of a family of four showing probable medical costs throughout the Expanding stage of the family based on the information given on p. 429. The parents are both 22 when the first child is born and the second child is born two years later. Make a composite chart of the various members to indicate the peaks and valleys in medical costs for the family as a whole during this stage of the cycle.
- 2 What tangible evidences if any can you recall which illustrate the work of your public health department? What tangible evidences if any do you have that the work of your public health department should be enlarged in scope? Explain.
- 3 What expenditures of resources have you made in the last year which could be classed as preventive medical care?
- 4 Formulate a simple questionnaire concerning methods of paying medical costs. Where prepayment on an insurance basis is used, allow opportunity for indicating degree of coverage and degree of satisfaction derived from this method of payment. Have several class members ask approximately 10 persons who are heads of families to fill in the questionnaire. Summarize results. Can you draw any generalizations concerning needs in the area of payment of medical costs from your findings? How do your results compare with the figures for numbers of families in the population as a whole who carried health insurance in 1960?

BIBLIOGRAPHY

General

- CAMPBELL, PERSIA. *The Consumer Interest* (New York: Harper and Row, 1949).
- Heller Committee for Research in Social Economics. *Quantity and Cost Budgets for Two Income Levels*. September 1961 (Berkeley: California University of California, 1962).
- BIGELOW, HOWARD F. *Family Finance*. 2nd ed. (New York: Lippincott, 1953).
- FITZSIMMONS, CLEO. *Consumer Buying for Better Living* (New York: Wiley, 1961).
- LAMALE, HELEN H. and STOTZ, MARGARET S. "Interim City Workers' Family Budget." *Monthly Labor Review* Vol. 83, No. 8 (August 1960) pp. 78-808. Also reprint No. 2346.
- NICKELL, PAULENT and DORSEY, JEAN MUR. *Management in Family Living*. 3rd ed. (New York: Wiley, 1959).
- TROELSTRUP, ARCH W. *Consumer Problems and Personal Finance*. 2nd ed. (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1957).
- U. S. Department of Labor. *How American Buying Habits Change*. 1959.

- 3 Select a floor plan for a house suitable for a young couple. To what extent would this plan adapt itself without major changes to the needs of a family with three children? If structural changes would be necessary does the plan lend itself to such changes? What provisions should the family make when purchasing the house to make changes needed later more easily financed?
- 4 Check the real estate advertisements in your local paper. Select a house you consider adequate in space requirements for a family with a boy and a girl of school age. Estimate the total cost of the house when purchased with the following loan conditions:
 - a 5 per cent interest with loan to be paid in 10 years.
 - b 8 per cent interest with loan to be paid in 10 years
 - c 6 per cent interest with loan to be paid in 20 years.

In each case determine what the monthly cost of purchasing the house will be. Based on general patterns of expenditure for housing what income do you estimate is necessary to enable a family to finance this house safely? Would the income necessary vary with the loan terms available to the family? Why?
- 5 How does the condition of the house affect operating costs? How do the floor and wall finishes chosen for a house affect the operating costs? How do these finishes affect the management of other resources?

Transportation

- 1 Adapt Table 13.3 in this chapter (see p. 424) by substituting local figures for car insurance, operator's license, registration, price of gas, and so forth. How do the totals for overhead and operating costs compare with those in Table 13.3?
- 2 Adapt Table 13.3 by substituting a used car so that the original cost to the family is lower. Obtain information from local sources on costs for this car and for reasonable operating expenses for a car of its age. Compare totals with costs for a new car.
- 3 Make a plan for a family who wishes to reduce the annual costs of their car from approximately \$850 to \$600. What control devices would you suggest to insure the carrying out of this plan? Their original costs are approximately the same as those shown in Table 13.3. Do you believe such reductions are possible? Advisable?
- 4 Estimate the costs of transportation for a family without a car living in your community. Include at least one or two trips of considerable length for vacations. How do these costs on an annual basis compare with the costs of owning a car given in Table 13.3? Would the number of people in the family be significant in this situation? If so, explain.

- Can You Afford a Second Car? *Changing Times* Vol 10 No 4 (April 1956)
pp 17 19
- Car Maintenance—You Bet You Can Save *Changing Times* Vol 15 No 3
(March 1961) pp 7 11
- Farm Family Spending in the United States* Agriculture Information Bulletin
No 192 Agricultural Research Service United States Department of Agri-
culture June 1958
- KATONA George LININGER Charles MORGAN James and MUELLER Eva 1961
Survey of Consumer Finances Monograph No 24 (Ann Arbor Michigan
Survey Research Center University of Michigan 1962)
- More Miles Per Gallon *Changing Times* Vol 13 No 8 (August 1959) pp
19-21

Clothing

- BELDING Harwood S Clothing for Cold Weather *Journal of Home Eco-
nomics* Vol 43 No 3 (March 1951)
- DICKINS Dorothy Social Participation as a Criterion for Determining Scientific
Minimum Standards for Clothing *Rural Sociology* Vol 9 (December
1944)
- EBELING Maloa and ROSENCRAZ Mary Lou Social and Personal Aspects of
Clothing for Older Women *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 53 No. 6
(June 1961) pp 461-465
- HOFFMAN Adeline M College Clothing Expenditures *Journal of Home Eco-
nomics* Vol 52 No 8 (October 1960) pp 665-666
- KITZKE Dorothy Clothing Owned by New York Farm Families *Journal of
Home Economics* Vol 43 No 9 (November 1951)
- ROSENCRAZ Mary Lou Clothing Symbolism *Journal of Home Economics*
Vol 54 No 1 (January 1962) pp 11-22
- RYAN Mary S *Psychological Effects of Clothing Part I Survey of the Opinion
of College Girls* Cornell University Agr Exp Sta Bull 882 1952
- SHIVELY Anna E and ROSEBERRY Elizabeth D Adequacy of College Ward-
robes Judged *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 40 No 1 (February 1948)
- SYBERS Ruth and ROACH Mary Ellen Clothing and Human Behavior *Journal
of Home Economics* Vol 54 No 3 (March 1962) pp 184-187
- TATE Mildred T and GLISSON O *Family Clothing* (New York Wiley 1961)
- THOMPSON Henrietta M and EDWARDS Mary Neville A Minimum College
Wardrobe for a Freshman *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 52 No 1
(October 1960) pp 662-665
- WINAKOR Geitel Consumer Expenditures for Clothing in the United States,
1929-1958 *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 54 No 1 (February 1962)
pp 115-118

Medical Care

- 1962 *Agricultural Outlook Charts* United States Department of Agriculture
November 1961

Housing

- American Public Health Association Committee on Hygiene of Housing Construction and Equipment of the Home (Chicago Public Administration Service 1951)
- *Planning the Home for Occupancy* (Chicago Public Administration Service 1950)
- *Planning the Neighborhood* (Chicago Public Administration Service 1948)
- BEYER Glenn M. *Housing: A Factual Analysis* (New York Macmillan 1958)
- An Evocative Approach to Tomorrow's House *House and Home* Vol 21 No 11 (June 1962) pp 111-114
- Clues to Quality in a House *Changing Times* Vol 14 No 10 (September 1960) pp 7-12
- Farmhouse Planning Guides: Household Activity Data and Space Needs Related to Design* a Northeastern Regional Research Publication (Ithaca New York Cornell University Agr. Exp. Sta. and the New York State College of Home Economics 1959)
- HATCHER Flora Y. Housing for the Sixties *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 54 No 2 (February 1962) pp 100-103
- How Big a Mortgage Can You Get? *Changing Times* Vol 14 No 12 (December 1960) pp 39-41
- KATONA George LIVINGER Charles MORGAN James and MUELLER Eva 1961 *Survey of Consumer Finances* Monograph No 24 (Ann Arbor Michigan The Survey Research Center University of Michigan 1962)
- Long Mortgage or Short? *Changing Times* Vol 15 No 9 (September 1961) pp 17-20
- NOTEN Russell M. *Financing the Home* (University of Illinois Small Homes Council Circular Series A 13 1951)
- Space Standards for Household Activities* Bull 686 Illinois Agr. Exp. Sta. in cooperation with Alabama Agr. Exp. Sta. College of Home Economics of Pennsylvania State University Washington Agr. Exp. Sta. and the Agricultural Research Service USDA May 1962
- Summary of the Housing Act of 1961* 75 stat 149 84th Congress (S 1922) Housing and Home Finance Agency 1961
- 1959 Survey of Consumer Finances: Housing of Nonfarm Families *Federal Reserve Bulletin* Vol 45 No 9 (September 1959) pp 1097-1113
- WARREN Jean. Income and Housing Expenditures *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 53 No 5 (May 1961) pp 349-51
- Why Your Closing Costs Are So High *American Home* (January 1961) pp 30-31 66-67

Transportation

- "The Awful Truth About Car Depreciation" *Changing Times* Vol 15 No 9 (September 1961) pp 37-39

14

Family Security

As has been indicated in Chapter 12 the net worth of a family is determined by subtracting the total amount of current liabilities from the total current value of assets. Analyzing plans for family security then involves understanding both ways of increasing assets and the use of consumer credit. Family security means not only the ability to meet current needs but also some provision for the future. In order to know the kinds of assets a family needs to provide all must recognize the economic risks which they face throughout the life cycle.

ECONOMIC RISKS

Major Types

Three major problems will be discussed here: emergencies which may occur at any time in the life cycle; provision of income for the family should the breadwinner die too soon; and provision of income for the breadwinner and the family should he live too long. An additional problem is the risk of disablement of the breadwinner which might occur at any time in the cycle.

Although most of the risks mentioned above seem far away to the newly established family, emergencies can occur at any time. Furthermore, the problem of providing for economic security is a great one, and the longer the period in which funds for this purpose can be accumulated, the better. During the period of establishment, current needs are relatively low, and thoughtful young families look to the future and start their program for economic security soon after marriage. One of the first such steps taken by many families is investment in a home; this was discussed in an earlier chapter. The success of later stages may depend upon the provisions made for the future during the earlier periods. Even so, provision for retirement income may be made largely after the children have left home; current commitments are reduced, and certain risks have been safely avoided.

- Background Facts on the Financing of the Health Care of the Aged* Special Committee on Aging United States Senate (U S Government Printing Office Washington 1962)
- COHEN Jerome H *Decade of Decision* (New York Institute of Life Insurance 1961)
- Comparison of Health Insurance Proposals for Older Persons 1961* Prepared by the Staff of the Special Committee on Aging United States Senate (U S Government Printing Office Washington 1961)
- Health Insurance for Older Folks *Changing Times* Vol III No 4 (April 1962) pp 41-47
- HOOVER Ethel D Outlook for Medical Care Costs for 1962 ; *Family Economics Review* (December 1961) pp 24-28
- MACNAB Marian Myers Young Families Financial Management *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 54 No 10 (December 1961) pp 832-834
- MAISFI Albert G *Your Neighbor's Health is Your Business* Public Affairs Pamphlet No 180 1952
- Your Health Your Doctor and Your Pocketbook : *Changing Times* Vol 15 No 6 (June 1961) pp 5-24
- Source Book of Health Insurance Data* (New York Health Insurance Institute 1961)

they do not work for pay. In the field of home economics in particular the homemaker's experience may serve as a valuable resource if she returns to the professional field. Even so if the homemaker has been too long away from her professional field she will need to take a refresher course to bring her up to date.

If the children are still older at the time of the death of the breadwinner they too may add to the money income of the family and the number of years until they are financially independent is smaller. The situations described above illustrate the fact that the *minimum* protection needs of the family reach a peak during the preschool stage of the cycle and then decrease gradually as the children grow older with a final decided drop as the children become financially independent. If it is the hope of the breadwinner that neither his teen age children nor his wife will have to work outside the home the yearly cost of providing for them will increase until a peak is reached during the college years and then expenses will decrease sharply as the children leave home. Most families find that they cannot provide this degree of protection (which may not be needed) without overbalancing their current needs. For this reason the former example is the more typical of the two.

PROVISION OF RETIREMENT INCOME

Since the longevity of the average American is increasing rapidly the possibility of a married couple's outliving their active earning period and the need for providing income in their retirement is a growing problem. In 1959 the average length of life in the United States was 70 years an increase of 23 years since the beginning of the century.¹ Put another way in 1900 4 per cent of the total population of the United States consisted of persons who were 65 years of age or older by 1960 this percentage had increased to 11 per cent.² Dublin comments: "Old age is no brief period but one of sizeable duration. It is a period which, because of its length requires consideration in substantial terms."³

Fortunately if the program for providing family income in case of the early death of the breadwinner is carefully planned it may be adapted in later years to provide retirement income. Therefore while the provision of retirement income is a secondary goal in the early stages of the life cycle it should not be ignored.

¹ *Life Insurance Fact Book 1961* (New York: Institute of Life Insurance 1961) p. 109.

² *1961 White House Conference on Aging Chart Book* Federal Council on Aging (U.S. Government Printing Office) p. 8.

³ Louis I. Dublin, *The Facts of Life from Birth to Death* (New York: Macmillan 1951) pp. 229-230.

EMERGENCIES

Every family faces emergencies at one time or another. If a particular family has had no such crises for a long period of time, then by the law of averages one might expect them to have one in the near future. To face such unexpected happenings as illness or accident, unforeseen house repairs, costs growing out of the illness or death of relatives, among other things, most families attempt to have a fund which is absolutely safe yet easily available when needed. Since neither of these characteristics is found in an investment which pays significant dividends, the family recognizes that no more of their money should be tied up in this way than will normally be needed for emergencies. The cost of emergencies is to some extent related to the level of spending; therefore, the amount suggested to be set aside for emergencies is usually not less than one month's income nor more than three months' income. The reason for the top limit is that if more money than this is accumulated, it might better be placed in income-bearing investments rather than be idle. The emergency fund is not drawn from income each year. Once the predetermined amount has been reached, it is held until needed. When depleted, plans are made to return it to the desired balance within a reasonable time. Thus, if the emergency fund at present is \$100 below the amount set by the family, they will plan to replace this amount during the current year. This replacement will come either from reduced expenditures or from funds originally intended for investment.

DEATH OF BREADWINNER

For families in the early stages of the life cycle, the major economic risk is the death of the breadwinner. Even if the couple has no children, the wife is in a vulnerable position should her husband die after some years of marriage. It may be difficult for her to become self-supporting if she has had no professional training. Even if she has had professional training, she may need a period of retraining. However, the situation is complicated if there are young children. Not only are the expenses for a family more than for the wife alone, but she may be unable to work outside the home because she is needed there, or the costs of proper care for the children during her working day will reduce the effectiveness of her income.

As the children grow older, the needs of the family are lighter should the breadwinner die. Provision is needed for a shorter period of time, and the mother is freer to work outside the home. The children can then make a contribution to the real income of the family even though

and/or loss of investments [In general] provision for retirement [had] ~~to~~ be made in the period directly preceding it [which happened to be a period of high earnings—for many of the families]

Another evidence of the difficulty of providing for retirement is that one fourth of every 100 men over 65 years of age have annual incomes under \$1 000.⁷

The importance of this risk is recognized in the federal Social Security program. The benefits of this program are designed to provide for subsistence needs after the cessation of earned income for a retired worker for his children until they are grown for a child without parents a widow at age 62 or older or a retired worker and his wife at ages 65 and 62 respectively. Social Security benefits are intended to provide minimum needs; therefore this program serves as only a base for a family's insurance program. For those who cannot afford more it is a help. Unfortunately many people because of their occupations or because of insufficient years of service in a covered industry are not protected by this program. For those who are covered and who are considering this as a part of their security program it is important to remember two points: one should be realistic in estimating the amounts of benefits and should recognize that supplementary earned income in covered occupations is limited by law. The absolute maximum allowable based on the 1960 revision of the law is \$254 monthly for a family consisting of a widow and two children or a retired worker, wife, and one child under eighteen. Note that this is based on the maximum income of \$4 800 annually. The insured worker or his survivors must apply for benefits; they are not paid automatically.

Two major ways of providing for the economic future of the family are through insurance and through investments. Each of these will be considered in some detail.

CREATION OF ASSETS TO PROTECT AGAINST ECONOMIC RISKS

Insurance

EXTENT OF COVERAGE

Many families depend almost entirely upon an insurance program to meet their future needs. By the end of 1960 two out of three Americans were covered with life insurance issued by legal reserve life insurance

⁷ Current Population Reports—Consumer Income 1960 Series P-60 No. 37 January 17 1962 Table G p. 11

Extent of Problem

Provision for the entire future of a family is no easy problem. To many people a \$20 000 life insurance policy appears to provide a large amount of security. For a family whose members at present spend at the rate of \$5 000 annually, the funds from this policy would last less than five years, even recognizing that living costs of the breadwinner have been eliminated. A wife aged 30 at the husband's death has a life expectancy of 40 years or more. If her personal expenses (excluding those of the children) are \$125 per month, it would require over \$60 000 to provide these for the rest of her life. If one adds the costs of children, her needs become almost astronomical, however the average life insurance protection for families in the United States was only \$10 200 in 1960. This figure had increased from \$4 600 in 1950.⁴

Leavitt and Hanson have the following comment on the ability of families to provide for the future in case of the premature death of the breadwinner:⁵

It would be nice of course if we could all afford to carry as much as \$100 000 worth of insurance so that our dependents could live a financially secure life after we are gone. Unfortunately most of us must weigh the future needs of our family against our present needs. It is the sad truth that most of us cannot afford to carry enough insurance to provide for all the wants of our dependents. At best most of us can provide only enough financial assistance to make life a bit easier for our dependents. Fifty dollars a month is not much but far better than nothing.

As has been stated before, the family which escapes the problems of the premature death of the breadwinner is then faced with providing income during retirement. Although the family has a longer time in which to meet this problem, the increasing needs of the family as children are growing up make this difficult.

In a series of case studies of the financial histories of 12 families in a northern city, Virginia Britton Ohio concluded that:⁶

What may appear to be efficient budgeting at one period may later appear to have been poor. But the unknown and unforeseeable fluctuations in incomes of these families made efficient long-run budgeting difficult.

Obviously many of these families could not build savings and simultaneously provide an adequate level of living at all stages of the family cycle. Inadequacy of current income at times necessitated withdrawal of savings.

⁴ Life Insurance Fact Book of 1961, p. 1.

⁵ By permission from *Personal Finance* by John A. Leavitt and Carl O. Hanson, Copyright © 1960 McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., pp. 216-217.

⁶ Virginia Britton Ohio, *Case Studies of the Financial Experience of Selected Families 1942-1952*, Thesis for Special Session on Unpublished Doctor's Dissertation, University of Chicago, 1950, p. 6.

DISADVANTAGES

Along with its advantages life insurance has several disadvantages which make it unwise for most families to meet all their needs in this manner. A serious disadvantage is the specificity of the risks against which one is insured. For example, if a person carries only life insurance and is permanently disabled by an accident, the policy will not provide the needed income. Although it is possible to insure against almost any risk, the cost of the many premiums makes this prohibitive.⁹ Therefore, most families determine what their major problems are and insure against these risks, assuming that their emergency fund or income from investments will cover other needs.

With constantly changing needs and a wide variety of policies and options for settlement from which to choose, selecting an insurance program requires careful thought.

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

An understanding of fundamental types of insurance will be helpful. Anyone who intends to enter upon a program of insurance should select an agent carefully and seek his advice. It is important to buy insurance rather than be sold. It is further important to review such a program regularly. In order to build a unified insurance program which fits an individual family's needs, one should understand (1) methods of purchasing life insurance, (2) the characteristics of the major types of policies which are found in all companies, (3) how costs are computed and how they can be compared, and (4) how to select an agent.

Methods of Selling Insurance. Life insurance is classified as industrial, ordinary, or group according to the method of sale. Industrial life insurance premiums are paid weekly to collectors who make personal calls. Owing to the high collection costs, industrial insurance is very expensive and this method of payment is used primarily by individuals who are unable to accumulate the larger premiums necessary to pay less frequently. This type of insurance usually carries a face value of less than \$1,000 per policy.

Ordinary life insurance is usually written in multiples of \$1,000 face value and is paid in quarterly, semiannual, or annual premiums. A medical examination is usually required. The less frequently the premiums are paid, the less expensive is the annual cost. The bulk of insurance is sold in this way.

⁹ Ernest Havemann, "High Cost of Playing Safe," *Life Magazine*, March 31, 1961, pp. 74-78.

companies. This proportion increases to more than 70 per cent of the population of the United States when fraternal savings bank assessment and veterans life insurance are included in the total. A 1960 nationwide study of life insurance status of families classified according to income, residence, and type of family groupings showed that in each group analyzed a majority of the families had some type of life insurance. Fifty-two per cent of those with incomes under \$3 000 were insured compared with over 90 per cent of families in each income group over \$5 000. Married people carried more insurance than single persons in the same age bracket and although the presence or absence of children under 18 did not affect the frequency of insurance coverage greatly, those with children were insured slightly more frequently and paid somewhat higher premiums in the year prior to the study than did those without children. One out of five married couples in which the head was under 45 years of age purchased some insurance in 1959; in the group as a whole only 15 per cent purchased new insurance in 1959.⁸

ADVANTAGES

Insurance has gained this popularity because of two of its most important characteristics. First, insurance provides protection immediately although one's equity (or the value which has accumulated were the policy surrendered) in the policy is very small. For example, if a person has saved \$200, he is protected only to that amount. Had the \$200 been used as a premium on a \$5 000 insurance policy, he is immediately protected to the extent of the face value of the policy. True, if he lives for many years, his accumulated premiums will eventually equal the face value of the policy, and money invested otherwise might have been equally or more remunerative. Even though this occurs, he was protected at a time when his need was great and his opportunities for accumulation were limited.

The second characteristic of insurance which explains how so much protection can be provided when so little has been invested is that the group bears the risk of the individual. This is known as the insurance principle. Large numbers of individuals pay relatively small amounts into an insurance fund. Since the amounts paid in are determined by accurate estimates as to how great the demands upon the fund will be, sufficient money is available to pay the face value of the policies held by those who qualify during a given period. This principle operates whether the insurance in question is life, accident, or property insurance.

⁸ *Life Insurance Fact Book of 1961*, pp. 15-17.

Term insurance's greatest advantage is its low cost which makes it possible for an individual or family to provide a large amount of protection against temporary needs. It cannot be overstressed that term insurance alone is not suitable for covering the lifetime insurance needs of a family. Term insurance might be used by a young man whose potential earning power is great but who during the period of establishing himself professionally has a small or moderate income. Thus he is able to increase the protection of his family during this period until he is able to convert to permanent insurance. A young woman who temporarily has dependents but who does not wish to involve herself in a heavy insurance program which may not be suitable to her needs after marriage may choose term insurance to bridge the gap. Frequently students who have borrowed money to finish college purchase term policies to cover the period of the loan so that should they die the lender will not suffer. Variations of term insurance are frequently used in combination with other types in family programs to cover great but temporary needs.

Whole or Straight Life Whole or straight life is the most common type of insurance policy. Premiums or the payments made by the policy holder are payable until death. While the premiums are higher than those for term insurance issued at the same age, whole life insurance has the advantage that premiums are fixed throughout the life of the insured and do not increase at intervals as do premiums for term insurance whenever the policy is renewed. Whole life or straight life is the least expensive type of permanent insurance. As permanent insurance it offers both protection and accumulation of a reserve. This reserve makes it possible for an individual to borrow against his insurance to obtain some cash if he discontinues the policy (this gradually increasing amount is called cash value or cash surrender value) or under some conditions to waive payment of premiums. Under a whole life policy the policy holder is insured for life unless the policy is allowed to lapse and its face value is paid to the beneficiary upon the insured's death.

Limited payment Life Limited payment life insurance is the same as whole life in that the face value of the insurance is paid to the beneficiary upon the death of the insured. However the premiums are paid in for a specified period of time—usually 10, 20, or 30 years. The size of premium paid is higher than that for whole life since the equity must be accumulated in a shorter period of time. The shorter the period over which premiums are paid the higher the premiums. The major advantage of limited payment life over whole life insurance is that the former can be completely paid up during periods of high earning power.

In group life insurance one master policy provides protection for the entire group usually the employees of a particular organization. Group insurance ordinarily requires that a certain per cent of the employees join to balance good and poor health risks. A medical examination is often not required. In some cases the employer pays the entire premium; in other cases it is shared by the employer and employees. In general, group policies are less expensive than individual policies. In most cases an individual can participate in a group policy only so long as he remains with an organization.

In Connecticut, Massachusetts and New York, life insurance may be purchased through savings banks. The total amount of savings bank life insurance in force more than doubled between 1950 and 1960.¹⁰

Basic Types of Insurance Policies There are four basic types of life insurance policies. While some individual programs of insurance appear to be very elaborate, they are merely made up of combinations and modifications of these four types: term, straight or whole life, limited payment life, and endowment.

Term Term insurance is *temporary* insurance. The policy (or written agreement between the purchaser and the company) states that the insured is protected for a specific term (usually 5, 10 or 20 years). Should the insured die within the specified time, the face value of the policy (the amount of insurance purchased) is paid to his beneficiary (person who benefits on death of insured). Should the policyholder be alive at the end of the period, he is no longer insured unless he takes out a new policy at a *higher rate* since he is now older. Some term policies contain conversion clauses which enable the insured to change to a permanent policy at the premium rate based on his age at the time of conversion, but without the requirement of a medical examination. If he pays the accumulated difference between term premiums and those of the more expensive policy, the rate may be based on his age when he took out the term policy.

Term insurance provides *protection only*. No cash value is accumulated, and therefore no loans can usually be made upon it. Term insurance is the only type of policy in which it is possible that neither the insured nor his beneficiary will receive the face value of the policy. Since insurance companies may not have to pay all term policies, they can afford to provide this protection at lower cost than for other kinds of policies issued at the same age. However, most companies will not issue term insurance after age 60, so that the individual may find himself uninsured at a time when he cannot obtain other insurance.

¹⁰ 1961 *Life Insurance Fact Book*, op. cit., p. 102.

TABLE 14-1 Comparison of Major Types of Insurance Policies

Type	Relative Cost per \$10,000 for Male Insured at Age 31	Premiums Paid	Length of Time Insured	Recipient of Face Value of Policy	Purpose
Term	Least expensive premium at a specific age 5 year renewable and convertible approx \$61.00	For a specified period named in policy	Same as period of payment	Beneficiary if insured dies within specified period otherwise none	Protects against temporary needs when income is low best used in combination with other types
Straight Life	Least expensive permanent insurance—\$161.00	For life	For life	Beneficiary upon death of insured	General protection very adaptable can serve as source of retirement income
Limited Payment Life	More expensive than straight life—paid up at 55 \$187.00 20 payment life \$283.00	For specified period named in policy	For life	Beneficiary upon death of insured	General protection concentrates payment in high earning period
Endowment	Most expensive premium—year endowment \$472.00	For specified period named in policy	For period of payment	Beneficiary if insured dies within specific period insured if he is alive when policy matures	Expensive type of policy which places emphasis on saving rather than upon protection

Decide if Decision If rate of Life Insurance 488 Madison A New York 22 New York 1961 p 17 Rates of participating policies would be highly high but the cost would be lowered by an individual's Non-participating policy premium it would be somewhat lower than the one shown and no deduction would be paid Policies under \$10,000 would be a little higher in premium rates and lower for \$25,000 and Policies for women are at lower rates in recognition of somewhat lower mortality rate

Endowment Endowment insurance is the only type of policy in which it is possible for the face value of the insurance to be paid to the insured. Like limited payment life, the premiums are paid for a specified period of time. Should the insured die during this period, the face value of the policy is paid to his beneficiary. Should he be alive at the end of this period, he himself receives the face value of the policy. Premiums for endowment insurance are the highest of any type of life insurance since the reserve must be accumulated in a short period of time and the entire face value will be returned at a known date. For example, in the case of limited payment life, the insurance company might have the accumulated reserve to reinvest for a long period between the completion of payment and the death of the insured. In the case of endowment, this is not true since the face value is due when payments are completed.

Endowment insurance should never constitute an entire insurance program because once the policy matures, the policy holder is no longer insured by that policy. To reinsure then might be impossible due to his health, or certainly will be more expensive because of his greater age.

Table 14.1 compares the characteristics of the four kinds of policies.

Combinations of Basic Policies Family income, family maintenance, modified life, and family policies are all different combinations of term or temporary insurance with straight life insurance.¹¹

Family Income Policy The family income policy is a straight life policy with a decreasing term insurance rider attached. The term rider is for a specified number of years and provides that should the insured die within this period, the beneficiary will be paid a stipulated amount until the end of the period of the term. At the end of the specified period, the income from the term insurance stops and the straight life part of the policy is paid either in a lump sum or in a series of monthly payments. Should the insured live beyond the specified period, the extra premium for the rider would stop and he would continue payment of premiums on the straight life insurance and continue to be insured to the extent of its face value. For example, if the term rider was for a period of twenty years and the insured died five years after taking out the policy, the extra protection provided by the rider would be paid his beneficiary for the fifteen years of the term remaining after his death. If he died ten years after taking out the policy, the extra payments would be made for only ten years.

¹¹ Jerome B. Cohen, *Decade of Decision* (New York: Institute of Life Insurance, 1961), pp. 20-22.

Family Maintenance Policy Family maintenance policies are similar to family income policies described above except that a monthly income from the term insurance is paid for a specified period from the death of the insured. In this case if the specified period was twenty years the extra payments would be made for twenty years from the death of the insured.

Modified Life Insurance Modified life insurance provides coverage for the first few years at premiums lower than straight life yet higher than ordinary term insurance. After a specified period premiums increase yet are still lower than would be true of straight life insurance if purchased at the later age.

Whichever type of policy is used the insurance should ordinarily be concentrated on the breadwinner since his or her death would have the most serious economic effect upon the family's income. Only after basic family needs have been cared for is it wise to insure other members. Frequently families who use endowment policies to provide funds for the education of their children insure the children because the rates are lower than if the policy insured the breadwinner usually the father. The fallacy of this is evident. Should the child die there is no need for funds for his education. Should the father die before the policy carried on the child matures the need for the cash would be much greater. Therefore it is probably wiser and less expensive to carry a separate whole life policy on the father's life with the expectancy of cashing it when necessary to provide funds for the child's education. When a policy is purchased it is possible to determine its cash value at various periods so the family can forecast the amount of money which will be available. On the other hand should the father die before the policy had been surrendered the beneficiary would receive the full face value.

Family Policy A new combination of straight life and term insurance makes insuring all family members through one policy less expensive than through individual policies. Called the family policy it includes in a single policy straight life insurance for the husband with smaller amounts of term insurance for his wife and children. Premiums are based upon the father's age and all children including those born after the insurance is issued are covered.

Flexible Aspects of Insurance Many people are not conscious that insurance policies have certain characteristics which are very flexible thus adding to their usefulness.

Options The policy holder has several options or choices as to how the beneficiary will receive the proceeds of his insurance upon his death.

the probability of death at given ages. The mortality table now in common use is the *Commissioners 1941 Standard Ordinary Mortality Table* although some states are changing to the more recent 1958 Mortality Table.¹³

The older a person is when he purchases insurance the shorter his life expectancy and the shorter the period in which his premiums can be invested by the company to accumulate interest and provide the face value of his policy. Therefore the older a policyholder is at the time of his initial payment, the higher the premium he must pay for the same amount of protection. This is also true of limited payment life and endowment policies which are paid up in a limited period of time. The shorter the period of payment the higher the premium for the same amount of insurance.

PLANNING A LIFE INSURANCE ESTATE

Once the buyer has the background information on insurance, he must still develop a diversified program to fit his family's individual needs. This is sometimes called planning a life insurance estate.

Choosing an Agent. The choice of a life insurance agent is almost as important as choosing the company with which one does business for he is the buyer's major source of information. No matter how well informed the agent is he is not a disinterested party. He is no doubt convinced of the superiority of his company and the advantages of its policies. Furthermore he will receive a commission based upon the size of the policy sold. Therefore the insurance buyer should not be gullible in assuming that the agent has only the purchaser's interest in mind. For this reason the buyer can protect himself by having some idea of what protection he wants before contacting the agent. The agent can then show how this protection can best be achieved. Despite the fact that one should show some caution in taking the recommendations of the agent without thoughtful consideration it is most important that the agent be someone in whom the buyer has confidence and trust. If a complete diversified yet unified program is to be planned the agent will need much personal information about the family its goals its resources, and its way of living. The American College of Life Underwriters organized by insurance companies grants the designation Chartered Life Underwriters to salesmen who meet certain qualifications.

Some suggestions which will help avoid costly mistakes in purchasing life insurance are (1) asking the agent to summarize the major points of

¹³ See Appendix p. 552.

Whole Life is perhaps the most adaptable to the average run of life insurance needs there is always a need for life insurance protection regardless of the age of the individual. The Whole Life policy is further versatile in that it contains a savings element the cash value which permits the individual to protect simultaneously against premature death and the loss of income through old age. A Whole Life policy taken at earlier ages will have substantial cash value per thousand at age 65. Most companies will permit the insured to withdraw this cash value as an annuity income at that time or at other ages if he so desires.

Adjustments of Overambitious Programs Allowing an old policy to lapse and replacing it with a new policy may be both expensive and dangerous. During the first years of a policy's life little cash value accumulates because the selling and initial costs are charged against the premiums. If a policy is replaced unnecessarily these costs are actually paid twice. If there is a lapse in time between the two policies the individual is unprotected and faces the possibility that he may be found uninsurable and cannot obtain the new policy. Premium rates also increase with the age of the insured at the time he takes out a policy. The older policy may have benefits and provisions which are more attractive than those of the new policy.

However should a family decide after careful consideration that its insurance program is heavier than it can afford to carry there are a number of ways in which permanent policies can be altered to fit the family's needs. Surrendering a policy and receiving its cash value is of course one way. However if one still wishes to retain the life insurance protection he can place a policy on a *paid up* basis for a lower face value. For example a whole life policy purchased at age 35 can be changed when the policy holder reaches 65 to a paid up policy of about 70 per cent of its face value. No further premiums are paid and upon the death of the insured the beneficiary receives the lower amount.

If the insured chooses to alter his policy by electing *extended* insurance the original face value of the policy is extended for a specific number of years. In reality this replaces the permanent insurance with term insurance. No further premiums are paid and if the insured dies within the specified number of years the full face value is paid. However if he outlives this period he is no longer insured.

Costs of Life Insurance Life insurance costs are based on three factors the life expectancy of the policyholder the rate of interest the company can obtain from investing reserve funds as premiums are paid and the expenses involved in handling policies. Life expectancy is determined by the use of *mortality tables* which are scientifically calculated to determine

cleanup expenses

medical care	\$
funeral	
debts and bills	
taxes	
insurance loans	
estate settlement	
extra family expense	
total needed	\$

cash available

savings	\$
social security	
group insurance	
other	
other	
total available	\$

needed from
life insuranceless $= \$$ **mortgage**

balance outstanding or payments pend- ing sale	\$
--	----

cash available

savings	\$
other	
total available	\$

needed from
life insuranceless $= \$$ **family's monthly expenses**

housing	\$
utilities and household operation	
food	
clothing	
medical care	
incidentals (car person all recreation)	
total needed	\$

monthly income available

social security	\$
investments	
earnings	
other	
other	
total available	\$

needed monthly
from
life insuranceless $= \$$ **emergency fund**

estimated need	\$
----------------	----

cash available

savings	\$
investments	
group insurance	
other	
total available	\$

needed from
life insuranceless $= \$$ **wife's monthly expenses to 65**

estimated budget (follow family period headings)	
total	\$

monthly income available

investments	\$
earnings	
other	
total available	\$

needed monthly
from
life insuranceless $= \$$ **wife's monthly expenses after 65**

estimated budget (follow family period headings)	
total	\$

monthly income available

investments	\$
social security	
other	
total available	\$

needed monthly
from
life insuranceless $= \$$ **special funds**

for	\$
for	
total wanted	\$

cash available

investments	\$
other	
total available	\$

needed from
life insuranceless $= \$$

FIGURE 14-1 How Much Insurance?
Use this form to estimate your needs

MANAGEMENT APPLIED TO SPECIFIC RESOURCES

the program in writing over his signature and (2) making a point of not signing the contract on the day it is presented for consideration. The latter point gives the buyer an opportunity to look over the contract objectively and without the persuasive personality of the agent present.¹⁴

Determining Needs After choosing an agent the next step in insurance programming involves determining all life insurance needs for the family. Insurance agents ordinarily do not overestimate these needs even though the prospective buyer frequently is shocked at the size of even minimum needs. In the earlier discussion these needs have been lumped under the needs due to premature death of the breadwinner or needs of retirement. Mehr and Osler list them more specifically in the usually accepted order of their importance as funds for cleanup of debts due to last illness and so forth, payment of mortgage or maintenance of home provision of income during a readjustment period until other sources of income such as the wife's working can be established, funds for the child rearing period providing a minimum income for wife for life, establishing an emergency fund supplying retirement income for husband and wife, providing college income insuring against death of wife and then of children, and finally including luxury needs.¹⁵ A form for estimating life insurance needs is shown in Figure 14.1.

Evaluating Present Insurance The next step in programming is to measure present life insurance including Social Security and other sources of income against insurance needs. This gives the family a chance to see their resources as a whole and the extent to which the present program meets these needs.

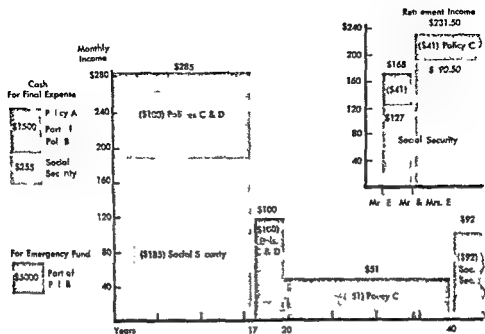
Adding Needed Kinds and Amounts of Insurance Next deficiencies which appear in the first three steps should be filled with additional life insurance insofar as the family can and will afford it. This of course is determined by the current income and other family needs which affect the amount of income which can be devoted to insurance.

Finally the program should be restudied at intervals to adapt it to the changing needs and resources of the family.

A Case Study A single case study from the Institute of Life Insurance illustrates how the policies owned by a particular family shape up as a program for providing protection for the future. Tom Evans was 23 and Nancy was 20 when they were married on their graduation from

¹⁴ William J. Matteson, *Life Insurance and Annuities from the Buyer's Point of View* (Great Barrington: Mass. American Institute for Economic Research, 1961), pp. 59-60.

¹⁵ Mehr and Osler, *op. cit.* p. 379.



**FIGURE 14-2. Family Protection Plan
For Tom and Nancy Evans**

Based upon the life insurance Tom owns at age 25 Tom plans to add to his life insurance program and to accumulate other resources over the years. In addition his company is putting in a pension plan.

Adapted from Jerome H. Cohen, *Decisions of Decision* (New York, Institute of Life Insurance, 1961) p. 14.

Also Tom has arranged to have \$5 000 set aside for Nancy from Policy B as an emergency fund which she could draw on if needed.

The \$10 000 of insurance that would be available after the family income period could be paid to Nancy in monthly installments of \$51 until she became 62 when she would again come under Social Security and receive \$92 a month.

Although Tom plans to add to his insurance program throughout the years his present protection program can be converted into a retirement income program when he reaches that age adding to a company retirement pension and to Social Security old age retirement payments.

Savings and Investments

Besides insurance the other method of providing for the future is through savings and investments. Even cash reserves may be safely invested on a short term basis so that funds will be available in case of emergencies.

insurance protection for the family before embarking on an investment program in stocks and bonds

Stocks are certificates of ownership in a corporation. Stockholders are the legal owners of a corporation and are entitled to its earnings paid in terms of dividends. On the other hand should the corporation fail the stockholders lose their investment. Corporations issue two types of stock common and preferred. When the board of directors declares dividends preferred stock bears a specific dividend before other stockholders are paid. Preferred stock dividends may be or may not be cumulative if cumulative dividends are retroactive and the corporation must pay up all unpaid preferred dividends before declaring any dividends on common stocks. After claims of preferred stockholders have been met and if funds are still available the board of directors may vote any amount of dividends to holders of common stocks. Thus while dividends are first paid on preferred stock common stocks may receive higher dividends and their value is variable while that of preferred stocks is fixed.

Bonds. Bondholders are creditors of a corporation or of a government. Bonds are in reality notes or promises to pay a loan within a specific period of time and at an agreed rate of interest. The claims of creditors are met before any dividends are paid to stockholders.

ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF INVESTMENTS

The advantages of stocks and bonds as investments to provide for the economic security of the family lie in the fact that the income from these investments is available whether the breadwinner dies or lives and in the latter case whether he is able to work or not. Furthermore the funds are not preallocated and the income from such investments is available for any purpose for which it is needed.

These advantages are somewhat offset by certain inherent disadvantages. First a large amount of principal is necessary to provide even a minimum income. For example \$1 000 invested in preferred stock at 5 per cent will earn only \$50 annually when dividends are declared. However the effects of compound interest should not be ignored.¹⁷ In addition the family is protected by these investments only to the extent to which they have been able to accumulate funds as contrasted with life insurance where the protection purchased is immediately equal to the face value of the policy although the family's equity may be small in the beginning.

However the greatest disadvantage of investments as a means of pro-

¹⁷ See Appendix p. 552

CASH RESERVES

Safety and availability are of the utmost importance in choosing a repository for these cash reserves. Interest is of secondary importance. Among the repositories which are available to short term investors are savings banks, savings department of commercial banks, building and loan associations, and industrial banks. These institutions are available to families or individuals who have small amounts to invest. They are used also by individuals who have large investments but who wish some cash reserves.

In each case the institution in question collects small and scattered savings of individuals and invests them, returning to the investor an agreed rate of interest. Some savings departments of commercial banks pay no interest, but the safety of the funds is assured. Interest is probably highest (up to 4.8 per cent) in the case of savings and loan associations but savings invested in them may be less liquid than in the others.

None of these types of savings should be considered cash for regular expenditures, although in most cases the funds are available in case of emergencies. Since these institutions vary in the interest paid and the availability of funds, even the small investor should investigate the various opportunities in his community before selecting the place to invest his savings.

LONG TERM INVESTMENTS

The problems presented by long term investments are more complex than those of short term savings just mentioned. It should be understood from the outset that investment and speculation are not synonymous. In the case of investment, the investor is interested in the safety of his principal and a fair return on his money while in speculation he hopes to be smart enough to increase his principal rapidly by earning high profits through assuming great risks. Thus in speculation the loss of the principal is always a possibility. In providing for the future needs of the family, it is important that the speculative element be reduced to the minimum and that emphasis be placed upon safety of principal with a predictable income.

Stocks. Although family investments may be in real estate, home ownership and private business enterprises, the present brief discussion of investments will be limited to stocks and bonds. It is however assumed that most families will have provided an emergency fund, have established a considerable equity in their own home, and will have provided

Service and the Fitch Stock Record The publications of one or more of these services are usually available in libraries, broker's offices, or in local banks. Financial sections of the large metropolitan newspapers and financial papers such as the *Wall Street Journal* carry not only market quotations but also articles by financial specialists. Reputable brokerage firms, banks, trust companies, and investment companies will offer advice to the investor who wishes to make his own decisions as to investments. Books dealing primarily with personal finance and magazines such as *Changing Times* include material helpful to the beginning investor.²⁸

Because of the fluctuation in the market price of securities, some investors avoid panic buying or selling by engaging in dollar averaging or investing a previously determined amount at regular intervals with the number of shares the money will buy varying from time to time. Over the long term, the periods of high and low prices paid for the securities will tend to average out. Dollar averaging is the basic principle underlying the Monthly Investment Plan for stocks listed on the New York Stock Exchange. It is possible under this plan to purchase a fraction of a share of stock. In 1962, investments of as little as \$40 every three months were possible; a commission of 6 per cent was charged on each purchase.

Investment in Mutual Companies Many people choose the second alternative and place their funds in an investment trust or mutual fund, as investment companies are sometimes known. Such companies use the investor's funds to acquire a diversified portfolio of securities. Thus the funds of a large number of individuals are pooled and invested by experts. In effect, by owning a share in a mutual fund, the individual invests in a number of different companies. Although investment companies had a bad reputation after the stock market crash of 1929 and after several flagrant cases of mismanagement were aired, many of the abuses have been eliminated. They are particularly attractive to the person who has neither the capital knowledge nor the time for developing a diversified and sound investment program. However, selecting an investment company is still a matter for great caution, since the investment philosophy and the quality of management vary greatly from one to another.

²⁸ Elvin R. Donaldson and John K. Pfahl, *Personal Finance*, 3rd ed. (New York: Ronald Press, 1961), Chapter 17, "Obtaining Investment Information," pp. 484-520; William C. Freund and Murray G. Lee, *Investment Fundamentals* (New York: The American Bankers Association, 1960), "Wife's Guide to the Stock Market," *Changing Times*, Vol. 11, No. 10 (October 1960), pp. 25-31; "Investing: How to Make a Start," *Changing Times*, Vol. 12, No. 11 (November 1958), pp. 7-13; "What Do They Do on the Floor of the Stock Exchange?" *Changing Times*, Vol. 11, No. 8 (August 1955), pp. 27-31.

viding economic security is that a sound investment program requires a great deal of specialized knowledge in selecting the securities and the time and ability to study the revisions made necessary by changes in the business cycle and industrial trends Both stocks and bonds are purchased on the market and therefore their current market value fluctuates some times above and sometimes below the value of the stock or bond when bought Furthermore there are costs involved in the purchase of stocks or bonds For example if the investor deals with a broker the latter charges for his services For many reasons it is difficult for the uninitiated to determine how much income he can expect from his investments

The complexity of the problem is indicated when one asks the simple question what type of corporate security (common stock preferred stock or bonds) is the best buy According to the definition of these securities bonds are the safest investment since they represent claims which must be paid before any dividends are earned by stock On the other hand common stock in a vigorous corporation may be a sounder as well as a more lucrative investment than bonds of a corporation which is shaky financially The following quotation is attributed to Bernard Baruch one of the most successful stock investors¹⁸

If you are ready to give up everything else—to study the whole history and background of the market and all the principal companies on the board if you can do all that and in addition you have the cool nerves of a gambler the sixth sense of a kind of clairvoyant and the courage of a lion you have a ghost of a chance in Wall Street

WAYS OF SELECTING INVESTMENTS

Because of the complexity of the investment field three alternatives suggest themselves The investor can attempt to gain the necessary information himself or join a group of investors known as an investors club¹⁹ who pool their investment money and make joint selections he can entrust his funds to trained people to invest for him or he can limit his investments to government bonds which are conservative but a sound investment

Program Planned by Individual or Groups of Individuals If he chooses the first method he will no doubt turn to one of several recognized publications which offer investment information Among the better known rating services are Standard and Poor's Corporation Moody's Investors

¹⁸ Arch W. Troelstrup *Consume* Problems and Personal Finance 2nd ed (New York: McGraw Hill 1957) p 350

¹⁹ Club Together to Buy Stocks? *Changing Times* Vol 9 No 5 (May 1955) pp 7-11

Purchase of Government Securities Only The third alternative is to limit investments to government securities. The best known of these securities are Series *F* United States savings bonds, other less well known but equally important securities issued by the United States government are Series *H* savings bonds. Series *F* bonds may be purchased in denominations from \$25 to \$10 000. They are discounted, which means that \$18.75 is paid for a \$25 bond and the face value is paid when the bond matures in 7 years 9 months. The redemption value of the bonds increases at an increasing rate the longer the bond is held, amounting to 3½ per cent at maturity. For this reason funds should not be invested in government bonds unless there is some assurance that they can be held until maturity, however they may draw interest for an additional ten years beyond their maturity date. If the owner of a Series *E* bond needs the invested money for other purposes, he must cash the bond at its current value, since it is impossible to sell these bonds or use them as security for a loan. Leavitt and Hanson indicate the high regard in which these bonds are held in the following statement²¹:

the government encouraged the sale of these obligations to absorb excess purchasing power during and after the war, and also to put the growing public debt into as many hands as possible. In order to give the bonds the widest possible distribution, the government has made the terms of the bonds far more favorable to the lender than the cold logic of government finance would warrant. Thus the bonds are redeemable on demand and pay a rate of return considerably higher than the government need have paid.

No doubt because of the favorable condition of Series *E* and *H* bonds, the amount any individual can buy in a given year is limited to \$10 000 face value or \$20 000 if co-owned. Series *H* bonds bear interest annually paid semi-annually. Their investment yield is 3½ per cent when held to maturity (ten years). They are not available in denominations under \$500. Income from both Series *E* and *H* savings bonds is taxable. In the former case, the individual can elect to wait until the bond is cashed; in the case of Series *H* savings bonds, the tax must be paid annually on the interest received in that year.

Other government securities such as Standard United States Treasury bonds and notes are available, but at less favorable terms than the Series *E* and *H* savings bonds. Since an individual would not ordinarily purchase these securities if he had not exhausted his right to buy the more favorable bonds, they are of limited importance.

²¹ By permission from *Personal Finance* by John A. Leavitt and Carl O. Hanson. Copyright 1950 McGraw-Hill Book Company Inc. p. 153.

in their own home the need for hastily liquidating investments is much reduced

Recognition of Effect of World Conditions A family must consider its program for economic security in the perspective of long term business trends as well as from the standpoint of present conditions. Changes in business trends will affect both the amount of protection needed, the ease of providing it, and the methods chosen to provide it. Inflation over the past several decades has without question placed a hardship upon families who have reached retirement age and whose provision for this period was largely in terms of fixed dollar assets such as pensions, savings bonds, preferred stock, and savings accounts. The amount of dollars needed to provide adequacy is obviously greater in a period of inflation than in a period of depression. The wise investor who retires from active business when prices are low will recognize that this situation will probably not continue throughout his entire period of retirement and will select some investments that may provide an increased income as prices rise. While establishing an investment portfolio, changes in allocation of funds to fixed income and variable income securities are based to some extent on business-cycle changes. Many investors use common stocks as a hedge against inflation since their return is responsive to business conditions. An article in *Changing Times*⁴ recommending what to do with surplus money highlights the advantageous rates of return on investments in 1962 with special emphasis on investment of emergency funds. Table 14.2 compares the characteristics of various types of investments as related to the business cycle under 1962 conditions.

The Survey Research Center at the University of Michigan has studied people's investment preferences at various times during the past decade. People are asked whether in their opinion it would be wisest to put surplus money in a savings account, in government savings bonds, or in common stock or real estate. From 1955 to 1959 investment preferences shifted in favor of common stock and real estate, with this trend reaching its peak in the summer of 1959. Two years later the preferences expressed for bank deposits and savings bonds were somewhat more frequent. The explanations of their preferences indicated that the desire to hedge against inflation did not play a great role in the investment preferences in 1961. The safety of fixed value investments and a relatively high rate of interest were reasons for the increased preference for savings accounts and savings bonds. Savings accounts, but not savings bonds, were favored because they are liquid and convenient. The most frequent arguments

²⁴ Rainy Day Money: Where to Put It Now. *Changing Times*, Vol. 16 (June 1962), pp. 7-11.

a higher but fluctuating return. This of course is determined by the original selection of securities.

In comparing the return on two investments it is important to remember that fractions of a per cent are significant. For example, when comparing two investments, one bearing 3 per cent per annum and the other $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, the difference appears small. However $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent (the difference) is one sixth of 3 per cent. In other words, an interest rate of $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent would give a 16 per cent increase in interest over the same amount invested at 3 per cent. In addition, when considering rate of return, the percentage is based on the price paid by the investor, not the face value of the stock or bond. Fluctuations in market prices of securities result in a fluctuating rate of return where the interest is specified as in bonds and preferred stock. A way for the investor to determine how much he is willing to pay for a particular security is to compute its value by comparing its coupon rate (interest stated on face of security) with the market rate. This is called capitalizing the return. If the investor knows he can get 6 per cent for his investment elsewhere with equal safety, he will not invest in a security which gives him a lower return. For example, if the stated interest on a bond with a par or face value of \$1 000 is listed at 5 per cent or \$50, he will refuse to pay the par value for the bond since he can get \$60 elsewhere for investing his \$1 000. On the other hand, he can determine how much he is willing to pay for this bond by capitalizing the return. By dividing \$50 by 8 per cent, he finds that an investment of \$625 at 6 per cent interest gives a return of \$50. This method is frequently used to determine a safe price to pay for income-producing property such as real estate. If a prospective buyer knows the income he can expect from the investment and the rate of interest he can obtain elsewhere, he can capitalize the return to determine how much he can afford to invest in order for the income to provide the desired rate of return.

Liquidity. A third principle to consider in an investment program is the marketability of the securities, or the ability to convert the securities into cash without sacrificing value. This characteristic is important to families, since need for changes in the program may occur from time to time. Liquidity of an investment is also frequently a factor in determining the value of the security as collateral for loans. However, the more liquid an investment is, the higher its price, or in other words, the lower the return to the investor. Hence, income and liquidity must be balanced. In spite of the importance of liquidity, the investor (as opposed to the speculator) intends to maintain his holdings rather than to sell and buy frequently. If investment in corporate stocks and bonds is postponed until the family has an adequate emergency fund and a considerable equity

in favor of purchasing common stock and real estate were satisfaction with yields and the expectation of capital gains²⁵

Even with high incomes families may find it difficult to set aside the larger amounts needed to provide adequate protection should the bread winner die or to provide for retirement. On the other hand in periods of depression there may be the temptation to reduce the amount of protection because of temporarily low costs. If anything the family should provide as much as possible at the lower prevailing prices which will help lessen adjustments when prosperity returns. This is true of insurance coverage as well as investments.

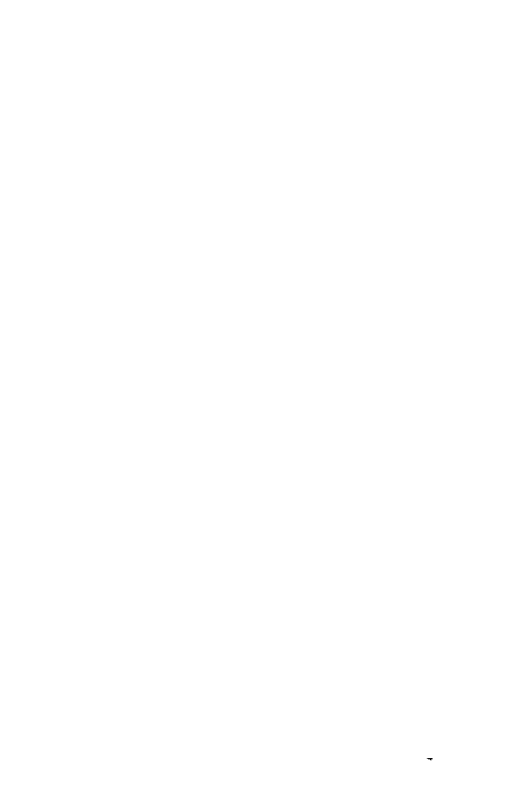
Finally in considering long time business trends the family must recognize not only the effect of the business cycle upon their savings but also the effect of their savings program on the entire economy. Their willingness or unwillingness to invest in business enterprises at various stages in the cycle may well have an effect in reducing the extremes of the cycle. For example the family who places most of their investment money in common stocks during a period of inflation on the theory that the value of the stock will increase with rising prices may actually be forcing the prices of these stocks higher thus further reducing the value of their other holdings which have a fixed-dollar value. On the other hand a family willing to invest in periods of depression when most people are loath to do so may have made a significant gesture in showing their faith in the economy as a whole.

SIZE OF INVESTMENT PROGRAMS

As has been stated a number of times in the discussion of providing economic security most people are limited in the amount of protection which they can provide. In popular conversation perhaps more often in the past than at present comment has been made. Anyone can save who wants to. Failure to do so is just evidence of lack of thrift. A frank facing of the economic problems of families shows that this is not true. The extent to which a family provides for the future (whether in the form of insurance or investments) depends upon four factors: the amount of income available; the present needs of the family; their foresight and attitude toward thrift; and lastly the opportunities available to them for safe investment and inexpensive insurance.²⁶ The first two factors are closely interrelated since a low income coupled with low demands may make

²⁵ George Katona *et al.* 1961 *Survey of Consumer Finances* Monograph No. 24 (Ann Arbor: Michigan Survey Research Center, University of Michigan, 1962) p. 114.

²⁶ Hazel Kyrk *The Family in the American Economy* (Chicago: University of Chicago, 1953) p. 180.



CREDIT AND ITS EFFECT ON FAMILY SECURITY

Attitudes Toward Credit

Attitudes toward installment buying have changed considerably in the last half century as is evidenced by the large volume of business financed in this manner today. In 1915 the total of short and intermediate term credit was only \$6 billion. In December 1960 all types of short and intermediate-term consumer credit amounted to \$55.8 billion. Of this \$42.0 billion was installment credit with \$17 billion in automobile credit, \$11.5 billion other consumer goods, paper, \$3 billion in repair and modernization loans, and \$10 billion in personal loans.²⁷

INDIVIDUALS

In spite of the lenient attitude toward installment buying, some resistance remains. In her study of managerial practices of homemakers in two socio-economic groups, Van Bortel reported that half of the lower and 17 of the middle class homemakers (23 in each group) disapproved of the use of installment buying. On the other hand, 80 per cent of the lower group and 40 per cent of the middle group had used installment credit on an average of two times during the previous year. The middle class group expressed a decreasing reluctance to use credit.²⁸

GOVERNMENT

The government considers the regulation of credit as one of the several tools for controlling a money economy. In inflationary periods, credit is usually restricted by size of down payment allowed and time of repayment, thus reducing the amount of purchasing power available to force prices higher. In periods of deflation such credit restrictions are usually withdrawn in order to serve as an incentive for spending.

BUSINESS

The family must be prepared to make their own decisions about credit since retailers and lenders have made it more and more simple to obtain

²⁷ Revision of Consumer Credit Statistics. *Federal Reserve Bulletin*, Vol. 47 (December 1961), p. 1391.

²⁸ Dorothy G. Van Bortel, *Implications for Home and Family Living from an Investigation of the Managerial Practices of Two Socio-Economic Groups of Homemakers*. Talk given before the Family Economics Home Management Division, American Home Economics Association, Atlantic City, N. J., June 24, 1952.

greater savings possible than a somewhat larger income coupled with decidedly greater present needs. As the last two factors increase so would one expect savings to increase.

The 1959 Federal Reserve Board survey of consumer finances (see Table 14-3) included some information on the amount of savings for

TABLE 14-3 Percentage Distribution of Liquid Asset Holdings Within Spending Units in Early 1959*

Size of Holding	1958 Money Income Before Taxes				All Spending Units
	Under \$1000	\$3000-\$3999	\$5000-\$5999	\$10 000 and over	
\$0	61	28	14	2	25
\$1-\$499	17	36	43	12	31
\$500-\$1999	12	18	24	26	22
\$2000-\$9 999	7	16	17	41	11
\$10 000 and over	2	2	2	19	4
All Cases	100	100	100	100	100

Based on Survey of Consumer Finances, Federal Reserve Bulletin (July 1959), Supplementary Table 7, p. 715.
Figures may not total 100 because of rounding.

American families The 1959 survey showed as would be expected that in general families with low incomes had smaller holdings of liquid assets than did those with higher incomes. The items classed as liquid assets in this survey were all types of United States Government savings bonds, checking accounts, savings accounts in banks, and shares in savings and loan associations and credit unions. Currency was excluded. Of spending units with incomes (before taxes) under \$1 000, over three fourths had liquid assets totalling \$500 or less, and three fifths of spending units in this income group had no liquid assets. One seventh of the spending units with incomes of \$10 000 or over had liquid assets of \$500 or less. One of the surprising results of the study was the fact that 11 per cent of the spending units with incomes of under \$1 000 had liquid assets totalling over \$2 000. This is attributed in part to an increase at this income level in the number of retired persons with considerable amounts of liquid assets and of business men who may have temporarily low incomes as business conditions have become more competitive.

need **ii** to establish a good credit rating. A record of having paid loans regularly and on time may be a significant factor in determining whether or not a loan will be forthcoming in the future. Even if a person **iii** not using credit for the primary purpose of establishing a good credit rating, he should remember that his actions determine his credit standing and that business concerns share this information widely through credit bureaus.

Without question the fundamental reason for using credit is to allow a family to enjoy consumer goods while paying for them. This may be an emergency decision to get the family out of a spot—as when fuel must be purchased during the winter months and the family lacks the cash to pay for it. It may more justifiably be an instance of planned credit as when the family agrees that the increased price of a washing machine when purchased on credit is worthwhile in light of its capacity for reducing the homemaker's time and energy used in laundry.

Any family who considers the use of credit must recognize the relationship of credit to income. Although credit makes possible more purchases in the present, it does not increase income but rather borrows from future income, reducing the amount which will be available for purchase of goods in the future. Not only must the principal be repaid from future income, but credit charges must be paid in addition. This means that the total number of goods which can be obtained in the long run will be fewer in order that more commodities can be enjoyed at present. Thus a family must weigh present and future needs before deciding whether **or** not to avail themselves of credit.

Availability of Credit

Even with its increased availability, not all families can obtain sound credit with equal ease. The lender must have some assurance he will be repaid. The ability to obtain credit readily and upon favorable terms depends on three factors commonly called the 3 C's of credit. They are character, capacity, and collateral. The first applies to one's willingness to pay, as evidenced by successful handling of earlier loans and his reputation for integrity. Capacity means the ability to pay and is ordinarily based upon the size and regularity of income and other demands upon it. Good intentions are not enough; the borrower must have some prospect of being able to handle the payments. Collateral refers to the property which is offered as security should the borrower not be able to repay the loan.

The individual who has marketable stocks and bonds or real estate to put up as collateral for a loan can probably get a loan even if he does not qualify in other

credit. Often they are more interested in selling credit than in selling the product itself. The financing may offer profits equal to or higher than those on the item sold. Hoskins and Coles²⁹ found in a study of credit charges for purchases of automobiles that seemingly great reductions on the price of the car or increased trade-in allowances were often wiped out by equally great increases in the financing charges. This is possible because the finance charge may be determined by the dealer and not, as most buyers believe, by the bank or sales finance company to whom the monthly payments are made. So frequently did this occur that the authors suggest that the prospective car buyer may secure a sizeable discount by allowing the dealer to assume that the financing will be arranged through him. Then, once the price has been agreed upon, the buyer may find a less expensive source of credit and pay the dealer in cash.

Reasons for Using Credit

Families use credit for various reasons. Convenience is one frequently mentioned. This characteristic applies largely to charge accounts and credit cards which enable one to make large expenditures without carrying a corresponding amount of cash which provide a record of purchases thus simplifying accounting which allow one to enjoy the article now and delay payment and which make return of unsatisfactory items simpler than otherwise since they have not yet been paid for.

Another common reason for use of credit is to pay old debts. In this case cash credit is necessary. If a number of debts are contracted the total may be large even though the individual loans were small. Each creditor, not caring about the other debts, expects prompt payment which may be most difficult under the circumstances. The borrower can pay these debts by borrowing the total needed. Payments on the larger loan can usually be spread over a longer period of time. In this way he satisfies his creditors and his credit standing is not injured. He can then repay the debt in an orderly way instead of stalling the grocer one month while paying the garage bill and reversing the procedure the next. It must be recognized that this ordinarily involves a double charge for credit is used twice for the same commitments and for a longer period of time.

The ability to borrow when necessary is important. This is dependent among other factors upon one's credit record. If an individual has never borrowed, he has little evidence as to whether or not he is a good credit risk. For this reason many families use credit even though they do not

²⁹ Lois S. Hoskins and Jessie V. Coles. "Credit Charges for Purchases of Automobiles." *Journal of Home Economics*, Vol. 53, No. 1 (January 1961), pp. 39-41.

of credit is set for the customer he can make purchases up to the limit without further authorization. A time is set by which the amount of the original limit must have revolved completely although the consumer may still owe a total equal to the ceiling. For example, if the limit is \$200 for one year, the borrower will have repaid this amount by the end of the year although he may have made other purchases on credit so that the total owed is still \$200. The purchaser may be required to pay a minimum dollar amount monthly or a specified fraction of the ceiling limit. Ordinarily a charge of $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent per month is levied on the unpaid balance. This is usually higher than the charges for installment purchases or loans in the same stores or banks. Revolving credit issued by a bank may be used to purchase items in many different retail outlets yet it necessitates establishing credit only once.

CREDIT CARDS

Credit card systems are charge accounts. They provide easily accessible and convenient credit for the highly mobile individual. They are used primarily for purchase of services and nondurable goods itself a recent innovation in credit. A single company such as an oil company may authorize credit extension to its customers at any of its many outlets. Usually no fees are charged either the retail outlet or the consumer. In other cases an outside firm may organize a group of firms selling services or goods into a credit card system such as the Diners Club. All participating businesses pay the credit card organization a percentage on credit card purchases and user members pay a small membership fee.³¹

TEEN AGE CREDIT

Still another development in the credit field has been the extension of retail credit to teen agers. A small survey of teen age credit in Massachusetts showed that of 52 stores studied, 23 offered credit to teen agers under the teen ager's own name, all but seven of the stores, however, required the signature of a parent or guardian. All of these stores set a limit on the amount of credit available with \$50 the highest.³² Clothing was the item most frequently purchased on these credit accounts. This trend is no doubt due to the increased purchasing power of teen agers whether it provides a real learning experience for the teen ager is questionable.

³¹ Lelia Easson, "New Developments in Consumer Credit," *Journal of Home Economics* Vol. 51, No. 10 (December 1959), pp. 816-8, 906.

³² Winifred Eastwood et al., "Teen Age Credit Accounts," *Journal of Home Economics* Vol. 51, No. 8 (October 1961), pp. 663-666.

pects. However for the man who owns little more than a car and household and personal effects collateral is far less important than character and capacity. The wise lender places most of his faith in the man not the collateral.³⁰

Kinds of Credit

When an individual decides to use credit he has a choice of two kinds: (1) merchandise or retail credit and (2) cash credit.

MERCHANDISE OR RETAIL CREDIT

In the first case he selects the article and arranges for its payment in installments. He may deal with the retailer from whom he purchased the item or he may sign a contract with a financing company but arrangements are made at the time of purchase of the article and refer specifically to the payment of that particular purchase. In the second type the individual borrows money from one of a number of sources. If a particular item is desired he purchases it with the cash obtained thus. Although the individual may have stated his purpose in borrowing these funds once obtained may be put to any use.

Merchandise or retail credit may be further subdivided into two groups: open book credit commonly known as a charge account and installment credit in which a specific contract is drawn to specify the conditions of payment.

CASH CREDIT

Cash loans may be obtained from banks, both commercial and industrial credit unions, licensed small loan companies and others such as pawnbrokers and remedial loan societies. Since sources of both cash and retail credit vary in the costs charged, the size of loans and the advantageousness of the attendant conditions it behooves the borrower to know the characteristics of each and to obtain his credit from the one which offers him the most advantages within the limitations of his credit standing.

New Developments in Credit

REVOLVING CREDIT

A major development in consumer credit within the last decade is that of revolving credit offered both by retail stores and banks. After a limit

³⁰ John A. Leavitt and Carl O. Hanson, *Personal Finance* (New York: McGraw Hill, 1950), p. 134.

borrowers appear to be concerned only with the size of the weekly or monthly payment and do not even inquire as to the number of payments involved and hence the total cost. Even the most naive of borrowers should recognize the extent to which future expenditures will be reduced by the use of credit. *No one should borrow money or make use of installment credit without first knowing how much he will pay in dollars and cents for this privilege!*

Even this is not so easy as it sounds. For instance, in the example cited before of no charge for credit, the cash discount if granted on request represents the cost for credit. If the store refuses to give a cash discount, this does not necessarily mean that there is no charge for credit. If one shops around, he may find the identical item at a lower price in a store which sells for cash only. In this case the price differential is at least partly attributable to the cost of credit.

In other cases credit costs may be clearly stated as a flat dollar and cents charge which is called a carrying charge. This charge includes the costs of investigation, of losses due to bad debts, and of collection, as well as interest on the principal.

Costs Stated as Percentages Credit costs are often stated as percentages. In order to determine the dollar cost in such cases the borrower must understand the base on which the percentage is figured. In installment buying the rate may be stated as (a) a flat percentage of the original price of the article although a down payment has been made, (b) as a per cent per year of the total unpaid balance remaining after the down payment has been made, or (c) as a per cent per month of the actual balance outstanding each month.

If a kitchen range costs \$200 with a down payment of \$75 and the balance is to be paid in five equal monthly installments at 6 per cent, the dollar cost varies from \$7.50 (method b) to \$22.50 (method c) depending upon which method of stating credit charges is used. If under method c no payments were made on the principal for five months and it was then paid in full, the dollar cost of the credit received would be \$37.50 (\$7.50 credit charges each month). Actually a rate of 6 per cent per month on the unpaid balance is illegal in states where small loans are regulated by law, but the example is used here to show the wide variation in dollar cost depending on the base used. The highest rate which is legal when credit costs are stated as per cent per month on the unpaid balance is commonly $2\frac{1}{2}$ to $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.⁸⁵

In borrowing cash the percentage may be stated as (1) a straight per cent

⁸⁵ For statutory maximum small loan rates for September 1960 see Appendix pp 556-557.

All these new developments in credit presage a new era in credit usage with meaning to individuals in terms of convenience mobility experience levels of living and assets as well as in terms of expense and debt.²³

Information Needed for Wise Use of Credit

Better Business Bureaus stress that the borrower should learn the following four things before borrowing.²⁴

- 1 The risks involved including what happens if you fail to make payments promptly
- 2 The true costs of credit
- 3 The different credit sources
- 4 The moral responsibility of debt

COSTS OF CREDIT

It is a surprise to many to learn that credit always costs money. Frequently they will cite the fact that no charges are made for a charge account. Yet they fail to recognize that the overhead costs of a store which provides this service are greater than those of a store which sells for cash. Not only is there the necessity of additional clerical help but the costs of investigation of collection and of loss through bad debts must be considered. Even though no specific charge is made for credit prices in such stores reflect these added costs. Thus the credit costs are paid by those who do not avail themselves of its use as well as by those who do.

Sometimes retail stores which sell on the installment basis will advertise that there is no charge for credit. In these cases prices again include the costs of credit and the person who pays cash is paying for credit which someone else received. Frequently if the customer offers cash payment and asks for a better price his request may be granted proving that the merchant can afford to sell at a lower price when credit is not involved.

Even where credit costs are admitted the borrower may fail to recognize the full cost of the credit and is even more frequently confused as to what rate he is paying for this service. One reason the cost of credit is confusing is that charges are stated in many different ways. In order to make accurate comparisons they must be reduced to a common base.

Dollar Costs The simplest though not always the most accurate way to compare credit costs is to determine its cost in dollars and cents. Many

²³ Eason *et al.* p. 906

²⁴ *Facts You Should Know About Borrowing* rev. ed. (Boston Better Business Bureau Education Division 1950) p. 4

of small loans For the same reasons short term loans are more expensive than long term loans

Should the dollar cost of two \$100 loans be the same the true rate paid will vary if the time of payment is different For example if two loans of \$100 are made and the credit charge is \$6 in each case the dollar cost is the same If loan A is repaid at the end of one year the annual rate is 6 per cent of the original balance or 50 cents per month The monthly rate is 0.5 per cent However if loan B is repaid in full at the end of six months the dollar cost remains the same as for loan A but the rate is doubled Six dollars divided by six months gives a monthly rate of \$1 or 1 per cent monthly The borrower is interested not only in the amount borrowed but in the length of time this money is available for his use Thus credit is two-dimensional one measurement being the amount borrowed the other the length of time the credit is held The two-dimensional aspect of credit is shown in Figure 14.3 Diagram a represents loan A described above and diagram b illustrates loan B Diagram

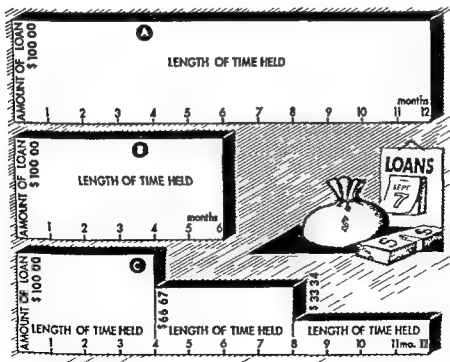


FIGURE 14.3 Comparison of Amount of Credit Obtained When Same Size Loan (Original) Is Held for Different Lengths of Time (a and b) or Is Paid in Several Equal Installments (c)

MANAGEMENT APPLIED TO SPECIFIC REFINANCING

per year of the loan (2) is a per cent per month of the declining balance (the same as in c above) or (3) as a discount rate. The last term means that the interest is deducted from the loan at the outset. If a \$100 loan is discounted at 5 per cent the borrower receives only \$95 but repays \$100.

A specific carrying charge is the easiest way to determine the dollar cost of credit and emphasizes in the mind of the consumer the extent to which future income has been reduced by the use of credit. While more difficult the dollar cost of credit stated in other ways can and should be computed. It is difficult to believe that aware of these costs an individual would knowingly pay a higher cost than is necessary if he can meet the conditions of the lower priced loan.

The dollar cost of credit as stated in the original agreement may be increased by certain fees if the borrower or installment buyer deviates in any way from the original agreement. Reputable dealers and lending agencies do not charge exorbitant fees but it must be recognized that their costs increase if the debtor does not fulfill his promises. These fees are not regulated by law but are stated at the time of the original loan or purchase. Frequently an individual is so eager to obtain the credit that he fails to note carefully the terms he is accepting. It cannot be overstressed that the individual should know (1) how much credit he is receiving (2) what he is paying for it in dollars and (3) what will happen if he cannot pay as promised.

Factors Affecting Cost All other things being equal cost of credit is determined by the size of the loan the length of time it is held and the security offered by the borrower. It is understandable that the less risk assumed by the lender the more easily and inexpensively can a borrower obtain the credit he desires. The loan value of anything offered as security depends upon the margin of safety furnished and the ease with which the lender can convert the security into sufficient cash if the occasion demands. ³⁰ Thus loans which are secured by a cosigner (a person of acceptable credit rating who signs jointly guaranteeing the loan should the debtor default) are usually less expensive than those which are secured by personal property which might depreciate in value or be unsalable should the creditor attempt to foreclose.

While it may not seem quite fair from the borrower's point of view small loans are more expensive proportionately than large loans. The reason is simple. It costs a lending agency more to service ten \$100 loans than it would a single loan of \$1 000. The costs of investigation collection and so forth are increased tremendously with the larger number

³⁰ Facts You Should Know About Borrowing op cit p 5

The rate of charge is based on the unpaid balance so the borrower pays only for the amount of credit actually received and the maximum allowable varies from state to state but is commonly $2\frac{1}{2}$ to $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent per month on the unpaid balance. Small loan companies are used primarily by those people who cannot secure loans at lower cost because of lack of security. Although these loans are easily obtained the individual should consider whether their necessarily high rates are the best conditions he can find. Thus a \$100 loan at a rate of $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent per month if paid back in one month would cost the borrower only \$2.50. On the other hand a \$100 loan at the rate of $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent per month if repaid in a lump sum at the end of a year would cost \$30.

Banks Two types of banks make loans to individuals industrial banks and commercial banks. At the turn of the century commercial banks were not interested in consumer credit preferring to lend money for production purposes. Industrial or Morris Plan Banks were established about 1910 to provide consumer credit. Arthur J. Morris for whom the plan was named was convinced that consumer credit was a good risk. These loans were paid in monthly installments which were used to purchase certificates. When the face value of the certificates owned by the borrower equalled the amount of the loan the debt was cancelled.

Commercial banks through personal loan departments have become increasingly interested in consumer credit. Although some loans are payable on the installment plan commercial banks make money single payment loans. Since the security required by a commercial bank is high in quality not all borrowers can obtain this type of credit. Cosigners or security in the form of collateral such as life insurance policies bonds and so forth are usually required. Emphasis is also placed on regular employment. The rates charged by commercial banks are somewhat lower than those of industrial banks and decidedly lower than those of small loan companies. Commercial bank charges are usually discounted and an investigation fee may or may not be charged.

Credit Unions Another source of credit available to some consumers is the credit union. A credit union is a financial co-operative which has two purposes promotion of savings and making small loans. Only members can borrow from a credit union. To become a member an individual must buy at least one share of stock (usually \$5). He can purchase more shares thus increasing his earnings however each member has one vote regardless of the amount of stock owned. The money derived from the sale of shares is available to members for loans. Although the regulations vary from state to state the customary rate of charge is 0.5 to 1 per cent.

c shows the decreasing amount of credit held when a loan or purchase made on credit is paid in several equal installments. The area of each diagram represents the amount of credit which was actually available to the borrower. It is obvious that in *b* and *m* the borrower has had less credit than in *a*. In *c* he had the use of the full \$100 loan only four months; the last four months he had the use of less than \$31 of the lender's money. It is easy to see that the problem of figuring the actual cost of credit in the latter case is more complicated than in the two examples above. This more intricate method is explained in the Appendix.²⁷

SOURCES OF CASH CREDIT

Up to this point the costs of credit have been treated in general with little emphasis on whether the credit is of the cash or retail credit type. The same methods of figuring costs apply to both, and the borrower needs to figure the cost of each type in determining which type of credit is more suited to him.

Costs of cash credit vary with the source of the credit, although the costs are basically determined, as was stated earlier, by the size of the loan, the length of time for repayment, and the security required. A brief summary of the characteristics of the various loan sources may be helpful in selecting the place to obtain a loan.

Illegal Lenders. First, it is important to note there are some sources from which one should *not* borrow. These are the unlicensed lenders or loan sharks, who operate outside the law, requiring unreasonable amounts of security, charging exorbitant rates of interest, and imposing tremendous fines when the borrower deviates from the original agreement in any way. In states where small loans are regulated by law, such loan sharks can easily be determined by checking with the state's licensing agent. Actually, such a license should be conspicuously displayed in the loan company's place of business.

Small Loan Companies. Loan sharks are not to be confused with licensed small loan companies which operate according to state laws. Most states have patterned their laws on the Uniform Small Loans Act, which was written by the Russell Sage Foundation. In most states, small loan companies make loans up to \$300, which may be unsecured or secured by a chattel mortgage on furniture or personal property or by a co-signer.²⁸

²⁷ See Appendix, pp. 554-555.

²⁸ See Appendix, pp. 556-557.

TABLE 14-4 Comparison of Sources of Personal Loans

Lender	Range of Effective Interest Rates	Maximum Loan Generally Available	Collateral Commonly Needed	Maximum Maturity	Installment Payments	Credit Invested	Who Is Eligible
Commercial banks—consumer loan departments	7%–24%	\$5 000	None or car or securities or co signer	3 years	Yes	Yes	Anyone with sufficient credit rating
Consumer finance companies	16%–42%	\$1 000	None or co signer	3 years	Yes	Yes	Anyone with sufficient credit rating
Credit unions	6%–15%	\$400 unsecured \$5 000 secured	None or car or co signer personal property	3 years	Yes	No	Members only
Friends and relatives	0%–120%	Unlimited	None or personal property	Unlimited	Both	No	Friends and relatives
Industrial banks	12%–24%	\$5 000	None or car or co signer	3 years	Yes	Yes	Anyone with sufficient credit rating
Life insurance companies	5%–6%	Amount of loan value of policy	Life insurance policy	Unlimited	No	No	Policyholders
Loan sharks	50%–1 200%	\$500	None or personal property	6 months	No	No	Anyone
Pawnbrokers	24%–120%	\$300	Personal property	6 months	No	No	Anyone with collateral
Remedial loan societies	9%–24%	\$300	None or car or personal property	Unlimited	Yes	Yes	Anyone with sufficient credit rating
Savings and loan associations—savings banks—real estate loans	5%–10%	\$20 000	Real estate	30 years	Yes	Yes	Real estate owners with sufficient credit rating
Savings and loan associations—savings banks—share or deposit loans	5%–6%	Amount of deposit	Savings accounts	Unlimited	No	No	Savings account holders

per month on the unpaid balance. Dividends on shares are usually limited to 6 per cent.

Because membership in credit unions is ordinarily limited to a specific group of people—for example, those employed by a single company or living in a particular neighborhood—because the membership is known to each other, and because loans are carefully scanned as to their purpose, losses are very small. In addition, many of the costs of credit unions are met by services performed by members, thus reducing their overhead sharply.

Pawnbrokers Pawnbrokers make small loans on personal property such as clothing, jewelry, cameras, and so forth, which are left with the pawnbroker as security. If the loan is not repaid or extended within a designated period of time, the pawnbroker may sell the article to recover his money. Should the pawnbroker sell the article for more than the amount owed him, the excess belongs to the borrower. Perhaps because of ignorance, few people claim such payments.

In its bulletin *Facts You Should Know About Borrowing*³⁹ the Better Business Bureau urges that when a pawnbroker's loan is made, the borrower should be certain before leaving the shop that he understands the terms. Sometimes the rate is printed on the card the borrower receives. The borrower should also clearly understand how much time is allowed before the pledged article may be sold if the loan is not repaid or renewed by the payment of interest. Although there is some stigma attached to patronizing pawnbrokers, they have the advantage that should the borrower default, he has lost only the article pledged; his wages cannot be attached.

Remedial Loan Societies Remedial loan societies are semi-charitable organizations which operate like pawnbrokers. They have been founded to provide loans to small borrowers at lower rates than those customarily charged. These organizations are usually nonprofit. They exist only in large cities; the largest of them is the Provident Loan Society of New York. Their charges are usually 2 per cent per month on chattel mortgages and 1 to 2 per cent on personal pledges. These charges are based on unpaid balances and are not deducted in advance.⁴⁰

A summary of the sources of credit and their characteristics is given in Table 14-4.

³⁹ *Op cit*, p. 16.

⁴⁰ David F. Jordan and Edward F. Willett, *Managing Personal Finances*, 3d ed. (Englewood Cliffs, N. J., Prentice Hall, 1951), pp. 140-141.

With easy credit available it is the responsibility of the individual family to determine whether or not they have overextended themselves. A rule of thumb used by bankers states that all other things being equal the total unsecured debt an individual or family can safely incur is 15 per cent of the annual take home pay. Another guide is the length of time it would take the average family to clear itself of debt if no new debts were incurred. In 1959 the average family with installment debt owed about 20 per cent of its take home pay but was paying it off at the rate of 25 per cent.⁴³ Thus the average family would be clear of debt in about nine and one half months if no new debts were added. Actually in January-February of 1961 53 per cent of all spending units had no installment debt and the median amount of debt was \$570.00.⁴⁴ Obviously not only the amount of debt but also the reasons for borrowing and the relationship of debt to assets should be considered in determining whether a family owes too much.

CREDIT EMERGENCIES

In spite of the above precautions a consumer who buys on credit may find that he cannot meet his obligations. What should he do? The Retail Credit Institute advises the borrower not to become frightened but to go to his creditor and explain the situation fully. In most cases the latter who probably has gone through similar emergencies will consider how readjustments can be made. In the rare case when the merchant is unwilling to do so the Institute suggests that the debtor consult his Better Business Bureau, the Merchant's Association Secretary, the Retail Credit Institute of America, the city attorney, the local magistrate, his employer, his minister, or his doctor. Finally if the matter is taken to court which seldom happens the borrower must still avoid becoming frightened. The Institute points out that the judge will probably prove to be the debtor's best friend and that it is only when he becomes panic-stricken and hides that a judge has no chance to hear his side.⁴⁵

The tremendous increase in consumer debt has raised the question as to whether the economy as a whole is endangered. The net worth statement for all Americans for December 31, 1961 (see Table 14.5) indicates the aggregate size of different types of assets and the relationship of liabilities to these assets. The total net worth of \$1,521.9 billion, an increase of \$138.6 billion over 1960, should allay some of these fears for the financial security of American families as a whole.

⁴³ "Do You Owe Too Much?" *Changing Times* Vol. 14 No. 5 (May 1960) p. 8.

⁴⁴ George Katona et al. *1961 Survey of Consumer Finances* op. cit. p. 11.

⁴⁵ *National Consumer Retailer Council News* Vol. 11 No. 3 (November 1948) p. 2.

PRECAUTIONS FOR BORROWERS

Leavitt and Hanson summarize the problem of purchasing credit by saying ⁴¹

anyone borrowing money should shop for a loan just as he does for ordinary merchandise. He should first decide what he wants in his loan: the amount, maturity, method of repayment, and the security he has to offer. Armed with this knowledge, he should visit the lending institutions available to him. By keeping all conditions of the proposed loan the same when discussing loan terms with each lender, he probably can get comparable dollar quotations on the cost of a loan. Good practice usually dictates that the first visit be to a commercial bank or to a credit union if the individual holds such a membership. If the borrower is refused accommodations by both of these institutions, an industrial bank may be willing to make the required loan on reasonable terms. Failing this, the borrower should search for the best available terms offered by small loan companies or pawnshops.

The following precautions will help the prospective borrower avoid overcommitting himself and his income and will help him avoid financial crises in the use of credit:

1. Borrow the smallest amount possible to cover your needs.
2. Know at least the total dollar cost of credit before buying.
3. Read and understand contracts before signing.
4. Know your lending agency—check to be sure it is licensed by the state.
5. Keep all papers on hand, including your copy of the contract and receipts for payments. When the debt is repaid, obtain the original copy of the contract so it will remain in your possession.

A prominent finance company amplifies the third point by recommending that the borrower know the following before signing any credit contract: who will collect the payments; the security required; whether or not salary or wages can be attached; any fines, penalties, or extra payments which will be imposed in case of failure to live up to the contract; whether or not adequate notice will be given before repossession; how large a refund of the carrying charge will be made if payments are completed before the date agreed upon; whether or not the contract is correctly and completely filled out when presented for his signature; and finally, whether or not the credit can be obtained more cheaply elsewhere. ⁴²

⁴¹ By permission from *Personal Finance* by John A. Leavitt and Carl E. Hanson. Copyright 1950 McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc. pp. 149-150.

⁴² Household Finance Corporation, Prudential Plaza, Chicago 1, Ill. filmstrip on shopping for credit.

has characteristics which make it suitable for a particular situation. A family must plan its insurance program carefully, recognizing that insurance needs vary with the stages of the life cycle.

Savings and investments comprise the second major method of providing economic security for the family. They provide an income that is not dependent upon the life or death of the breadwinner. Their greatest disadvantage lies in the vast amount of knowledge and judgment necessary to select and administer a sound program.

Three major investment principles are recognized: safety of principal, a reasonable return compatible with safety and liquidity. The family must also take into consideration the world situation both as it affects their investments and as their decisions affect the economy itself.

A number of legitimate reasons for the use of credit are discussed, but emphasis is placed upon the fact that credit increases costs, thus reducing the total number of goods available.

The family seeking credit should compare costs carefully. If the intricacies of the true percentage costs of credit are too great, at least the family should always know the cost in dollars and cents.

With credit becoming more easily obtainable, the family must decide the extent to which they can safely use credit.

A net worth statement for Americans on December 31, 1961, shows the relative importance of assets and liabilities and gives an indication of the financial security of American families as a whole.

LEARNING EXPERIENCES

1. What are the risks a family must provide against in planning for the years ahead? Which of these risks are greater today than in our great grandmother's time? Which are less? Justify your answer.
2. In general, it is agreed that families can most adequately provide for economic security by a combination of (1) savings for emergencies, (2) investments in securities, real estate, and so forth, and (3) insurance.
 - a. What does *each* of these contribute to a program for economic security which the other two *do not*?
 - In what order would you suggest the family establish these three funds?
3. Choose a fictional family in the period of establishment.
 - a. List the needs the homemaker would have if the husband should die within a year. Make a rough estimate of the estate he would need to provide if the needs listed above are adequately covered.
 - b. Plan a program for economic security for this family, including specific types of savings, insurance policies, and investments to be acquired within the current year and those already established. What will the total cost of this program be for the current year? Are needs adequately covered?

TABLE 14-5 The Consumer Balance Sheet
(estimates in billions of dollars)

Dec 31, 1961

[illegible]

Adapted from 1962 *Free Fact Yearbook* National Consumer Finance Association Washington D C from Table III and Cb III pp 23-24

Original sources: Securities and Exchange Commission, Federal Reserve Board, Department of Commerce and the National Commerce Finance Association.

SUMMARY

In this chapter two major factors affecting the financial security of the family have been considered first the development of assets to protect against economic risks through the use of insurance and investments and second the use of credit which represents a liability To gauge the financial security of a family assets and liabilities must be seen in perspective

Insurance though very specific in its protection is popular because it provides protection immediately. Each of the four major types of policies

- Life Insurance Fact Book* (New York Institute of Life Insurance 1961)
- MATTESON Wm J *Life Insurance and Annuities from the Buyer's Point of View* (Great Barrington Mass. American Institute for Economic Research 1961)
- MEHR Robert I and OSLER Robert *Modern Life Insurance* 3d ed (New York Macmillan 1961)
- Moderns Make Money Behave* (New York Institute of Life Insurance 1960)

Investments

- Club Together to Buy Stocks?* *Changing Times* Vol 9 No 5 (May 1955) pp 711
- DOANE, C Russell and HARWOOD E C *How to Invest Wisely* (Great Barrington Mass. American Institute for Economic Research 1961)
- DONALDSON Elvin and PFAHL John H *Personal Finance* (New York The Ronald Press 1961)
- FREUND William C and LEE Murray G *Investment Fundamentals* (New York American Bankers Assn 1960)
- GERARD Grace B *Financial Independence for Professional Women* *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 52 No 2 (February 1960) pp 914
- How to Invest* (New York Standard and Poor's Corporation 1960)
- How to Understand Financial Statements* (New York Member Firms of New York Stock Exchange)
- Investing How to Make a Start* *Changing Times* Vol 12 No 11 (November 1958) pp 713
- MORGAN James N *Consumer Economics* (Englewood Cliffs N J Prentice Hall 1955)
- Rainy Day Money Where to Put it Now* *Changing Times* Vol 16 No 6 (June 1962) pp 711
- 1959 Survey of Consumer Finances *Federal Reserve Bulletin* Vol 45 No 7 (July 1959) pp 700-723
- What Do They Do on the Floor of the Stock Exchange?* *Changing Times* Vol 11 No 8 (August 1955) pp 27-31
- What Everybody Ought to Know About this Stock and Bond Business* (New York Merrill Lynch Pierce Fenner and Smith Inc 1960)
- Wife's Guide to the Stock Market* *Changing Times* Vol 14 No 10 (October 1960) pp 25-31

Credit

- DONALDSON Elvin and PFAHL John H *Personal Finance* 3rd ed (New York Ronald Press 1961)
- Do You Owe Too Much?* *Changing Times* Vol 14 No 5 (May 1960) pp 712
- Facts You Should Know About Borrowing* Boston Better Business Bureau 1950
- 1961 *Finance Facts Yearbook* (Washington D C Educational Services Division National Consumer Finance Association 1962)

- c Trace the changing needs of this family for economic security through the life cycle if they have two children. What suggestions have you for meeting these changing needs?
- 4 Select a family from a magazine case study or enlist the cooperation of a real family. Summarize all provisions for the future which this family has made. Evaluate the adequacy of this program. Are needs met adequately? Has too large a proportion of current income been allocated to provision for the future? Could needs be met less expensively?
- 5 Assume that a young couple about to be married have decided that they will use credit to purchase a range or refrigerator. Investigate the various sources of credit both retail and cash. Determine what the minimum dollar cost and the maximum dollar cost of credit for these items would be. How does the cost of the item purchased on credit compare with the cash price? Are there any special qualifications necessary for this couple to be able to borrow from any of the sources of credit investigated? If so explain.
- 6 Prepare a brief questionnaire covering attitudes toward the use of credit in general, attitudes toward using credit for different items such as for the purchase of equipment versus borrowing for a vacation, attitudes toward new developments in credit such as teenage charge accounts, the most recent use of credit by the person answering the questionnaire, the source of credit used, and the reason(s) this source was chosen. Have each member of your class fill out the questionnaire, promising that anonymity will be preserved. Summarize the answers and analyze the results. Were attitudes and practices consistent? Did reasons for selecting the source of credit used reflect an understanding of the costs of credit?
- 7 Study advertisements for credit in your local newspapers. Such advertisements may either be in relation to installment purchase of an item or to cash loans. Could you make an informed decision concerning the cost of credit from the information given? What specific additional information would you need before making your decision?

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Insurance

- COHEN, Jerome B.: *Decade of Decision* (New York: Institute of Life Insurance, 1961).
- DONALDSON, Elvin and PFAHL, John K.: *Personal Finance* (New York: The Ronald Press, 1961).
- Facts You Should Know About Life Insurance (New York: Association of Better Business Bureaus, 1961).
- How Much Life Insurance Do You Need? *Changing Times* Vol. 10, No. 2 (February 1966), pp. 7-11.
- JORDAN, David F. and WILLETT, Edward F.: *Managing Personal Finances* (Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice Hall, 1951).

PART THREE

*Home Management as a
Field of Study*

- EASSEN Lelia New Developments in Consumer Credit *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 51 No 9 (November 1959) pp 846-48 906
- EASTWOOD Winifred HIGGINS Barbara ROBERTS Helen and WEEKS Shirley Teen Age Credit Accounts *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 53 No 8 (October 1961) pp 663 6
- Hearings on Truth in Lending Bill before a subcommittee of the Committee on Banking and Currency of the United States Senate 87th Congress first session S 1740 1961 (1388 pp)
- HOLMES Emma and MCINTOSH Minnie Belle Consumer Installment Credit Patterns of Use and Costs *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 52 No 2 (February 1960) pp 95-98
- HOSKINS Lois S and COLES Jessie V Credit Charges for Purchases of Automobiles *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 53 No 1 (January 1961) pp 39-41
- JOHNSON Robert W *Methods of Stating Consumer Finance Charges* Studies in Consumer Credit No 2 (New York Graduate School of Business Columbia University 1961)
- KATONA George and LININGER Charles A MORGAN James N and MUELLER Eva 1961 Survey of Consumer Finances Monograph No 24 Survey Research Center Institute for Social Research the University of Michigan Ann Arbor Mich 1962)
- MORGAN James N *Consumer Economics* (Englewood Cliffs N J, Prentice Hall) 1955
- MORS Wallace P *Consumer Credit for You* Bureau of Business Research Western Reserve University Rev 1959
- TROELSTRUP Arch W *Consumer Problems and Personal Finance* 2nd ed (New York McGraw Hill 1957)

15

The Teaching of Home Management

Thus far we have been concerned with the body of knowledge that has developed into the field of home management. The last section—Part Three—covers ways of using that knowledge and a history of how that knowledge has developed. One chapter is devoted to the imparting of knowledge of home management through general methods of teaching it at various educational levels. The last chapter of the volume traces the development of home management from its unself-conscious beginnings to its present status and closes with a brief look at its possible future development.

INTRODUCTION

Since home management is but one part of home economics and that in its turn is a subordinate part of the field of education it is to be expected that home management teaching rests upon the concepts of these larger areas. As home economics turned its attention to the whole family not just to the materials that families use home management teaching especially at the high school level took its philosophy from the larger field. Further all the ideas current in general educational practice of a given period are naturally drawn upon in teaching home management.

At the same time the teaching of home management has special characteristics of its own. To begin with it has evolved from a practical type of course and nothing more clearly exemplifies the danger of not seeing the forest for the trees than does a completely practical course. The resident course important in college teaching for several decades is built upon the practical application of management to a homelike situation. In practical situations it is difficult to see and transmit principles; in fact it takes extra effort to do so. A principle must be tied to something

degree granting home economics institutions in the United States in 1959. Typically they have consisted of six to eight seniors living for half a term or semester in a college-owned house. The students have varying degrees of freedom to organize their own activities, handle their own money, and practice genuine choice making.

Underlying Philosophy

The philosophy of a department of home economics is apparent in its resident course. No matter how much lip service is given to human values in the classroom, it is in the living situation where they must be exemplified. The lip service has been common since Lawrence Frank's fine paper emphasizing the importance of the human aspects of home management.² But wherever stress is placed upon skills and conventional standards, the course is less likely to emphasize either (1) conscious decision making with a view toward developing judgment in the individual or (2) human relationships.

Evidence of the philosophy underlying the resident course may be found in the degree of democracy in its organization. No phases of the course lend themselves better to genuine student control than the organization of the work of the house and its entertaining. True choice making is possible in both areas. Other possibilities of true choice making are the selection of different economic levels for food and the many decisions necessary to carry them out.

Changes in the Resident Course

Two or three kinds of changes are discernible in the resident course. One is increasing emphasis on training in decision making and less emphasis on the practical work of the household. Resident advisers reported this change informally in a 1959 survey of 57 land grant colleges in which 84 per cent of the students decided their own duties and responsibilities³ and over half cooperated in setting up the budget.⁴

The importance of choice making as a part of a woman's well rounded development highlights the central core of a home management course.⁵

² Lawrence A. Frank, "The Philosophy of Home Management," *Seventh International Management Congress*, Vol. 7 (September 1938), pp. 3-6.

³ E. Aueker, "Policies and Procedures Used in Home Management Residence Courses with Special Reference to the Married Student," Master's thesis, University of Nebraska, 1961, p. 51.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 41.

⁵ Esther McConnis, "Family-Centered Teaching," *Journal of Home Economics*, Vol. 44, No. 1 (January 1952), p. 11.

specific before it is effective. As soon as it is thus tied we may, if we are not careful, lose sight of the principle. It is however the understanding of the principle which carries over to a new situation. Hence this text although it includes many practical experiences to highlight the various principles of home management subordinates them to these principles.

One of the pervasive problems in the teaching of home management is that its practice is of necessity related to the culture and social environment in which it takes place. Its principles are universal its application is not. Thus if the social status of the teacher is different from that of her students the applications must be in terms of the group taught if the principles are to be meaningful. When a teacher comes from a different culture as is the case with home economists teaching in foreign countries the problem is even more acute.

It is recognized that home management teaching is not limited to separate home management courses nor that it should be so limited. Informally it occurs at least by trial and error in all phases of home economics. For example in a clothing course the general resources particularly of money and of time are managed. In a meal service course the management of those same resources is often consciously taught.¹ Outside the field of home economics as well many aspects of home management may be clarified quite without recognition of the fact. To illustrate at the college level a course in philosophy will give an opportunity to think over one's values and values are the underlying force in decision making.

There is no attempt in this chapter to include general laws of learning. It is assumed they will be utilized here as in all other teaching. Nor will all possible techniques for teaching home management be given. A wide variety will be incorporated but the experienced teacher will doubtless have others of her own to add.

This chapter will include sections on resident and nonresident school courses and on adult education courses. It will also discuss special devices for teaching management including those based on visits to homes and helps from homemakers. Earlier chapters included learning experiences in relation to each phase of management suitable for individuals and groups studying the subject at college and secondary levels and in adult education.

THE RESIDENT COURSE

Since the time of World War I the special method of teaching home management at the college level particularly has been through the resident course. Such courses were required in about three fourths of the

¹ Faye Kinder *Meal Management* Rev. ed. (New York: Macmillan, 1962).

Increasing the student's confidence in her own ability to make choices and to accept the rightness of her own judgment is another goal in all homemaking education. Lack of confidence among educated women in their own judgment and feelings, their need to be told what is the right way, their feelings of guilt when they are not able to live up to the standards they were taught, is responsible for much unhappiness and many feelings of futility. Women are being blamed for every ill of society. They need to recapture confidence in their functions as women. To make her own choices and abide by them while in college helps prepare the girl for her homemaking and other responsibilities later.

Another change in the resident course is experimenting with smaller groups, thus mirroring the size of the present day family. A third change is developing special arrangements for married students,* such as shorter periods of residence, daytime residence only, or having both husband and wife live in a home management house.

Some colleges are experimenting with shorter periods or with daytime residence for all their students. The shortening of the residence period has both advantages and disadvantages. Its practical advantages are that the time demands on the student are lessened, especially compared with those of an unblocked course lasting only a part of a term. The recruiting of qualified staff is somewhat easier because a faculty adviser may have more time to herself between groups. Most important, however, is the possibility of a more academic approach to the course. In the lengthened portion of the term not given to residence, a student has opportunity for wider reading and individual projects. On the negative side of shortened residence is the need for quicker adjustment to a new living situation in order both to perform effectively and to enjoy the experience. This is a problem for both students and faculty. The shorter the period of group living, the less emphasis is there on human relationships.

Daytime residence differs from full time residence chiefly in that students go back to their usual living quarters at night. Fewer group meals may be served, breakfasts together being most apt to be omitted. There usually is complete freedom at the weekend (as there may be in a full time residence course). The house is used more like a clubhouse than a complete living situation. Because of this fact, it is a less expensive laboratory for home management in that more students can be accommodated at one time and less desirable housing can be used. In greater or less degree it has the same advantages and disadvantages as shortened residence. Furthermore, it is relatively easy to include married students in this kind of course, although the wife being away at dinner time.

* Kucker, *op cit*, Table 31, p. 63, and I. H. Gross and I. E. Everett, *Home Management Is a Family Affair*, *Journal of Home Economics*, Vol. 41, No. 3 (March 1949), pp. 177-179.

here than in a family situation. Nevertheless very important ones center around the levels of expenditure for group living. It is unfortunate indeed if the individual as a result of the course fails to see possibilities for applying the principles of management at any economic level.

Students may experience variation in their most important item of group expenditure—food—and in the less important items of service and entertainment. Paid service may to some extent be adjusted to the standard for food, but the difficulty is that demands on student time and energy for academic purposes often preclude residents doing all the heavy routine household tasks that a woman on a low income would of necessity perform. Entertainment may successfully be set at different levels to include decorations, food service, and such. Students living on different levels of food expenditure during their residence gain a concrete idea of the possibility of flexible food expenditures without a consequent change of nutritive values. They see the home management house group spending twice as much on food for one week as for the next, with probably little difference in fundamental food requirements or even in satisfaction, provided the planning and preparation of food at both levels are equally good. The low cost level for a particular community at a particular time serves as a baseline. A clear-cut margin is necessary between levels. The comfort level should be approximately 50 per cent higher than a low-cost one if significant differences are to appear, and a higher level should be similarly above comfort.

In some colleges it is customary if there is more than one house for furnishings and equipment to be on different levels, and for students to divide the time of residence between two houses. For living experiences on different economic levels to be of value, it is essential that the student be fully informed on the cost of housing, furnishings, and equipment, as well as on operating expenses in the two houses. When it is not possible for students to experience variations in standards of housing and furnishings, they may become conscious of the money value of the standard at which they are living. Where full shelter and operating costs are met by the group, it is an easy matter to arouse this consciousness. In case students do not meet the costs of housing in whole or in part, and if they do not pay the full operating expenses, they may well estimate these costs. It is always possible to get local prices on goods and services enjoyed at general college expense. Students may price the rental of a similar house in the neighborhood. They may calculate the cost of electricity, of water, telephone service, and other furnished items. These estimated costs may then be totaled and added to the actual money expenditures in order to be able to visualize the imputed cost of living.

Regardless of the degree of freedom in planning the budget, a group

POSITION OF MANAGER

Although flexibility in house organization is very desirable since it offers an excellent opportunity for making decisions that can be carried out and evaluated the responsibilities of the manager—the most important position—are established in many home management houses in order that the managerial activities be emphasized. The person in the position of manager is responsible for the smooth running of the entire household and must see that the plans of the entire group are carried out. In fulfilling this duty she usually is the person who plans meals, buys food, keeps accounts, acts as host or hostess for the group, and directs other workers. In a small group the manager may be responsible for preparing the food as well as planning and buying it. While this combination of tasks is much more like that found in a home, it does not highlight the managerial process as clearly as when the planning is done by one person, those plans are executed by a second person or persons (directed by the planner), and the results are evaluated by the group. In some schools the student manager selects one day of her managership during which she is responsible for all activities. This gives her a more realistic concept of the total job and shows which tasks can most easily be de-emphasized when there is not time to do everything.

ROTATION OF WORK

The next problem of organization after the division of work has been decided is to determine the order of rotation of jobs. Various decisions must be made. Should jobs be as nearly equal as possible or should light and heavy jobs be alternated? Should some jobs be prerequisite to others, such as assisting in preparation of food before being responsible for all food preparation? If several jobs require work in the kitchen, should they be placed together so one gets them over, or should they be separated? Another question to be answered concerning the rotation of jobs is how the information concerning each job is to be passed from one student to the next. Will a list for each job posted on the bulletin board be sufficient? Would it be better for the person who holds the job to have a card in her position listing the responsibilities of her position? This could be passed on to her successor. Or would it be still better and is it possible for the incoming and outgoing persons to have a conference?

GROUP FINANCES

In making the group budget the general principles given in Chapter 12 are applicable. The genuine choices are of course much more limited

person who will prepare the meals? Is suitable equipment for preparing and serving available? When a manager must consider all of these factors and their interrelationship she sees that menu planning is far more than a combining of things one likes to eat and can afford.

A file of helpful magazine articles pamphlets and suggestions based on particular successes of a group or family may include ideas for the various levels for menus that can be prepared quickly and for particularly interesting combinations especially those requiring little effort to prepare. Another help in menu planning is a list of nutritional requirements stated in terms of practical quantities of food material such as one pint of milk per adult per day or as summarized in the Basic Four classification⁷ of foods to be included daily. Helps in planning menus at different levels of cost are available in recent texts.⁸

Work Simplification Through Menu Planning Whether or not the menus require too much time or are too complex depends partly upon the skills of those who are to prepare them. Most students are willing to give extra time for a special occasion but it is unfair to expect large blocks of their time day after day. Some faculty advisers require that the students who are to prepare the meals check the menus in light of the time they require for preparation. If the cook feels that the menus are too complicated or require either too much time or preparation at a time when she is not free simplifications can be made. If a ragout of left over roast beef has been planned the beef may be served cold sliced instead. A wedge of head lettuce may be substituted for a tossed green salad of many ingredients or an apple pie may be replaced by fresh fruit served with cheese and crackers.

A device sometimes used to place emphasis on the saving of time and energy in meal preparation is for each manager to plan and designate one or more meals which can be prepared in a short time preferably an hour or less. In those meals foods that have been prepared as part of an earlier meal may be included such as creamed potatoes from the extra ones baked for yesterday's dinner.

Reducing the number of foods in a given meal preparing large amounts of a single food which can be used on several occasions using foods which require little preparation or those requiring little attention during cooking selecting simply prepared one dish meals preparing foods

⁷ The four basic groups of foods from a nutritional point of view are briefly as follows: (1) the milk group (2) the meat group (3) the vegetable fruit group and (4) the bread and cereal group.

⁸ Faye Kinder *op cit* pp. 151-167. See also Eloise Cofer Evelyn Grossman and Faith Clark *Family Food Plans and Food Costs* Home Economics Research Report No. 20 Agricultural Research Service U.S. Dept. of Agriculture November 1962.

can have genuine experience in controlling the plan in action. A simple form such as the one shown in Table 15-1 enables a group to see just how their budget stands at any given time. In the beginning the group inserts in the top line of the form the classified total amounts allowed. Each manager enters what she has actually spent in each classification. She then subtracts her expenditures thus showing the balance in each classification available for later managers.

TABLE 15-1 Form for Checking a Group Budget

	Food	Gas	Service	Laundry	Entertainment	Misc.	Total
Amount Allowed	\$100.00	\$10.00	\$15.00	\$20.00	\$10.00	\$15.00	\$170.00
Manager I	22.69	—	2.50	4.75	—	3.20	33.14
Balance	77.31	10.00	12.50	15.25	10.00	11.80	136.86
Manager II	12.33	4.40	—	3.50	2.39	2.75	25.37
Balance	\$ 64.98	\$ 5.60	\$12.50	\$11.75	\$ 7.61	\$ 9.05	\$111.49

Managerial Experiences of Individuals

As manager the student does more conscious planning than in any other position in the home management course and more nearly approximates the position of homemaker. It is not to be supposed that other jobs do not involve the managerial process but in the case of the manager one person makes plans involving the entire group. Since most of the planning takes place before the student actually becomes manager, wise group organization will provide time for this planning in the days preceding managership. Each manager should remind herself of the group's goals and see if her plans are in line with the achievement of those goals. If the group is emphasizing time management during her managership, can her plans be simplified to demand less time on the part of the other members of?

PLANNING OF MENU

Are there many factors
additional requirements
which include
well chosen? Is
of the prep-

ed in plan;
menus at
d season
red of t
to the

Do they
interest
menus
abler
f the

plans only for those people who prepare and serve the meals or who are carrying out a special project under her guidance. Such a plan consists of deciding what are the necessary directions to be given workers so they may carry out the program desired by the manager.

Conciseness yet attention to significant details is important in making a work plan. The manager may of course make additional suggestions in fact she may give some additional directions which are not included in the written work plans. In some cases they are omitted because the detail might obscure the main points or they may be left to be given orally if this appears to be a sounder psychological approach. Work plans will vary in detail depending upon the judgment and experience of the workers for whom intended.

In the case of a work plan for the cooks the menus are probably the first item to be listed. However some managers fail to realize that their responsibility goes further than this. While recipes need not be given for ordinary foods though certainly the manager should know where to locate them directions should be provided for preparing any unusual food. Indeed if the food is very unusual it may be helpful for the manager to describe how the finished product—or the product at a crucial stage—should appear. The manager may also designate amounts of food to be prepared. If few foods are served at a meal larger servings must be used and one cannot always rely on the number of servings noted on the recipe. If a salad is being used to fill the nutritional requirement of a serving of vegetable one must remember that a larger volume of raw food is needed to equal a smaller amount cooked since the latter is more concentrated. Furthermore if the manager has planned meat to be used for two meals the food budget may suffer if the cook unwarned prepares and serves most of it for a single meal. Further directions depend upon the manager. She may see possibilities of boiling enough potatoes so that they may be used in different ways for different meals. Unless she explains this to the cook the planned saving in time may be lost. For a typical work plan see Appendix p. 561.

A few comments perhaps notations on the margin of menus will indicate whether the meal is to be served from the kitchen in the dining room and so forth. Work plans for the person who sets the table and serves the meal may include information as to table appointments and if there is a choice the type of service to be used. Diagrams may make these directions more clear and save a great many words.

Evaluation in the Resident Course

In courses in home management just as in life situations informal self evaluation is undoubtedly an effective kind. The evaluation methods described earlier are equally applicable here.

in advance to avoid peak loads and using the pressure cooker are all ways of reducing the time and energy involved in meal preparation

PURCHASING FOOD WITHIN A GIVEN ECONOMIC LEVEL

The second step in the manager's plans is to make a market order of the items needed for her menus. This order involves certain basic questions. What is needed? Is it on hand or must it be purchased? What quality is appropriate to the use? For instance, broken shrimp will be useable for salad but usually not for a cocktail. Where will the appropriate quality be found at the lowest price? What will be the most advantageous time to purchase the item? This last question must be considered from the standpoint of the manager's time, the keeping quality of the article, and the cook's convenience in preparing it. Last but not least, the market order will answer to some extent the question, Are the menus suitable to the level of cost chosen?

In answering the final question, one of two methods of controlling food costs may be chosen. Method I is completely sure but time consuming. Method II is somewhat less sure but most student managers will find it satisfactory and it requires far less time. The second method is equally applicable to the weekly buying plan of the homemaker who wishes to maintain a given level of food costs. First of all, a word of comfort for the inexperienced. It is impractical to expect anyone to keep to a food budget exactly. Hence a manager is usually considered to have hit her level if she is within 10 per cent of the amount decided upon. These two methods of keeping food costs to the level chosen are given in the Appendix, p. 558 ff.

A convenient market order form will indicate day of purchase as well as provide opportunity for classifying foods according to where they are to be bought (grocery, bakery, or dairy) or as to type of foods (fruits, vegetables, meats, and so forth) or both. If the market order form is made up of several small sheets instead of large ones, it will fit into a purse easily and the manager will be less self-conscious in the store when referring to her lists. A large portion of the food should be purchased on the first shopping trip. Delivery service or transportation facilities may determine just how large the first order may be. The alert manager will shop the ads before going to the store and this will give her some basis for determining where to buy. She may wish to go window or store shopping before she purchases anything.

WORK PLANS

The third step in the manager's planning consists of making work plans. If organization of most of the work in the home management house is planned by the group, the student manager will need to make work

to a collection additions to a scrapbook which indicate how well the group knew each other or a small article of furnishing for a house or laboratory indicating the feeling of ownership the group had for it

EVALUATION BY FACULTY ADVISER

Since the home management teacher must usually grade the student on her participation and achievement in the work of the group she needs a method of evaluation which will unify her observations of the student. Just as the philosophy of home management has changed through the years so has the basis for evaluating a student's achievement in a home management course. In the early years it was customary to rate students in a home management house on the various jobs they performed during the resident course such as manager cook hostess waitress and so forth. Little or no attempt might be made to weigh one job as more important than the others or to consider more than the final result. This method of evaluation was gradually changed and some positions particularly those of manager and cook were weighed more heavily than others. Some items other than jobs were next included such as contribution to the group participation in entertainment and problems in relation to the theory of management. By the early forties group relationships and the management of resources were included. Eventually a score card was developed as a grading device.⁹ It can be used by the faculty adviser alone by a student's peers or by the student herself preferably by all three.

If students score each other then a composite rating may be made by the faculty adviser for her guidance.¹⁰ Agreement usually appears among student ratings and between student and faculty ratings of an individual. Also self rating by a student will frequently correlate with peer and faculty ratings. One study of 53 students concerning the level of such agreements¹¹ showed somewhat higher agreement between faculty and self ratings than between self and peer ratings with agreement between faculty and peers nearer faculty self than peer self. Of the items rated there was more frequent agreement among the three types of raters on aesthetic standards than on any other item.

Beside the various methods of evaluating student work already described anecdotal records are useful. An anecdotal record consists of an

⁹ See Appendix p. 562 ff.

¹⁰ See Appendix p. 567.

¹¹ E. P. Ferns *A Study of the Composite Ratings of Students in a Home Management Course by the Faculty Adviser by Peers and by Themselves*. Master's problem. Department of Home Management and Child Development. Michigan State University 1925.

EVALUATION BY PEERS

Evaluation by one's peers is also valuable. It may occur through accident as in a bull session or a group may be encouraged to evaluate its achievements together. It is well to have a few minutes of reflection before such group discussion takes place. This enables the evaluation to be a composite of all opinions rather than a statement made by one person to which all others unthinkingly agree. In this period of reflection a key question to answer is: What would we change if this situation were to be repeated? In the discussion which follows justifications may be given for some actions thus eliminating certain criticism.

Group evaluation is valuable for it tends to eliminate prejudice which may be present if only one person does the evaluating and the reaction of the group highlights good and bad points of performance. If however the group is complacent and fails to see its performance or that of one of its members objectively the faculty adviser may aid them in developing insight by asking questions which require accurate analysis. Since the questions would vary from situation to situation no general list can be given but they serve the same purpose for oral group evaluation as a check list or rating scale does for evaluation of an individual. For instance after a party a group may say: Wasn't that fun? We really had good guests! When questioned further they add that the whole party went smoothly. The teacher might then ask: Would it have been better had we taken the wraps of the guests at the door rather than having so many people passing each other on our narrow stairs? Was the division of students between living room hostesses and waitresses good? Were guests left alone at any time? And if some student asked the name of the good looking tall fair haired guest perhaps plans for introducing everyone to each other were needed.

There are opportunities in the home management course for the group to compare itself with other groups. If there is more than one home management house on the campus such comparison is easy particularly if joint projects such as progressive dinners joint laboratories and so forth are carried on. The grapevine method is a very rapid means of communication between groups and neighboring groups soon know of the fiascos and successes of the others. However even if there is a single house or class or working group objective comparisons may be made between one group and another. How well did a preceding group stay within the budget? What kind of group projects did they carry out? What kind of entertaining did they do? What evidences of group life did they leave? Evidences might include a book chosen by the group with a note saying what fun they had had reading it symphonic records added

home management courses for married students used that laboratory.²⁰ Contact with other homes can be supplied either by the students going into homes or by bringing practicing homemakers to the students.

Using Homes and the Experiences of Homemakers

Observing in homes and working with homemakers in their own homes is a special technique developed and probably invented by Ella Cushman of Cornell University.²¹ Requests from families for help chiefly in respect to the physical house such as improvement of closet space provide natural projects for students. Their learning experience is however in no way limited to consideration of work and storage areas. The students through these contacts and home visits observe the values and goals of the families visited, their use of resources and their decision making. The students report and discuss their findings and develop case studies which may be used by later groups. To help them see the implications of the externals they observe, Miss Cushman had developed various guides. The first guide sheet points up evidences of end goals or values observed, why these evidences were considered to denote goals, and how the family was working toward the particular goal. A second guide sheet points up family use of resources of various sorts. A third guide emphasizes evidences of choice making with probable reasons underlying choice and its degree of success. The last guide covers a full managerial analysis of one important family action. As the family works with the students, it is not only the latter who are learning. Many a homemaker finds her problems clarified through discussion of them.

A special use of homes found in Scandinavian training in home economics is a required apprenticeship period in an approved home as part of the course leading to a professional certificate. Such experience would of course provide a long period of observation at close range of the managerial practices of one family.

When classes are large or time is limited, it is difficult if not impossible to arrange to take students into homes. Under such conditions a panel of homemakers may be used to introduce a unit or a course on home management. For the panel really to share managerial problems with their listeners, it is necessary that it be structured at least to the point of

²⁰ Kueker *op cit* p. 67.

²¹ Ella M. Cushman, *How a Home Management Class Works in a Home Kitchen*, *Kitchen Reporter* (November 1949); *Management in Homes* (New York: Macmillan, 1945). Also Ruth B. Snowman, *A Study of the Home Management Procedures of 13 Selected Families who Co-operated with Home Management Classes at the N.Y. State College of Home Economics, Cornell University from the Time of Their Initial Contact to the Present 1935-53*, Unpublished Masters thesis, Cornell Univ. 1952.

²² See Appendix pp. 567-569.

its principles. Work simplification including improvement of work areas is a phase of especial appeal to homemakers. The interest of mature women can be aroused in it according to Riner by such casual suggestions and questions as ¹⁸

Do you walk a mile or take a step to make a cup of coffee?

Has anyone seen my hat? Coat? Bicycle? Or winter blankets? They are in their places. But where are their places?

Financial management also has some appeal especially to farm women who can mesh in family financial planning with farm planning.

The increase in number of married women working outside the home has increased the need of effective management in the home but at the same time reduced the amount of time available to study the principles of management. These women if reached will respond to immediate help in practical applications. The problem for the teacher therefore is to lead from the immediate interest to more comprehensive or deeper aspects of management—for example a decision about which coat to buy for Mary Smith may go back to deeper issues such as 'Is a coat to be bought at all? How does its purchase affect the over all use of money for Mary's clothing? For all family clothing how does the amount spent on clothing by the Smiths affect the amounts they spend on other phases of family living?

SPECIAL TEACHING DEVICES

Home management along with all other fields of study adapts to its own use such modern teaching devices as audio visual aids and demonstrations. It employs techniques from industry in work simplification. It employs role playing where appropriate. It also uses homes and home makers to furnish learning experiences. Student learning experiences for various phases of home management abound in this book.¹⁹ Another special device may be to ask students to invent and carry through original learning experiences based on the application of concepts.

Of all phases of home economics however perhaps home management is the hardest to divorce from the life situations in the homes where it occurs. Its unique techniques are therefore the use of homes and experiences of homemakers. For the married woman student her own home is the natural laboratory. Nearly half of 18 universities providing special

¹⁸ Elizabeth Riner *Frontiers in Homemaking Education* Federal Security Agency Vocational Division Bull 239 1940 pp 28-30

¹⁹ See also M. W. Wood in cooperation with A. D. Hill and E. P. Amidon *Management Problems of Homemakers Employed Outside the Home* Vocational Bull 289 Home Economics Series 11 U.S. Office of Education Washington D.C. 1961

instructing in washing woodwork utilizing both hands might be presented as follows

<i>Steps</i>	<i>Key Points</i>
1 Get pail of solution and two cloths	1 Place pail at convenient height
2 Wash door with right hand	2 Use strokes clear across door beginning at bottom
3 Dry door with left hand	3 Keep dry cloth in left hand pocket of apron or on a surface at left

Obviously J I T technique is suitable only for rather simple directions on elements of jobs that can be easily repeated. It would not be practical for example in giving directions for mashing potatoes though it might be used for the steps involving skill that is the mashing proper and the beating.

J M T²⁴ consists essentially of four steps as follows

Step 1 After each member in a J M T group has selected a home job she wants to simplify she must be helped to get an accurate picture of that job as she is doing it now. The easiest way for her to visualize the job is to write down each step it involves in the order of performance. The number of feet that she must walk the steps she climbs the doors she opens and closes and any other motions moves or waiting that the job entails are listed. Body motions such as use of the right and left hand stooping or reaching sitting or standing are recorded. The homemaker makes this breakdown on the job at home. *The success of her whole plan depends on the clarity and detail of this analysis.*

Step 2 Next the homemaker questions each detail of the job. Why is it necessary? And as a check question What is its purpose? When and where can it best be done? Who is the best equipped in the family from the standpoint of time and ability to do it? Last How can it best be done?

The natural impulse is to jump to a solution of the problem or how before asking the first five questions. But it is easier to arrive at a better method of doing the job if the suggested order of questioning is followed.

Step 3 The homemaker now makes all possible improvements to develop a new method for herself.

As a new method finally evolves the J M T trainee will find it helpful to list the steps in that new method including every motion or period of waiting in the order it occurs.

Step 4 The last step applying the new method is probably the most interesting and rewarding. The homemaker is encouraged to use this newly developed method until she finds an even better way of doing the same job.

²⁴ Doris I. Anderson. J M T in the Kitchen reprinted from the *Kitchen Reporter* published by Helminator 1946.

suggesting to the participants ahead of time the types of problems that are truly managerial. A more informal way of benefiting from the experiences of home managers is to invite several homemakers at different stages of the family life cycle to visit over a cup of tea with class members clustered in small groups. The students in this case are prepared ahead of time as to the kinds of questions they might ask of the homemakers. These women of course know why they are invited and are willing to share their experiences.

A valuable substitute for visits from home managers or visits to homes and one increasingly employed is the use of case studies. These may be collected first hand by mature students from their own or other families whom they know intimately. Ready made case studies of real families are available in the women's and other magazines.²³ Lastly some films, plays and fiction both short stories and novels offer pictures of family managerial situations. These are however intertwined with family relations (as in life) and must be carefully analyzed to show the managerial problems included.

Teaching Work Simplification

Some effective devices for teaching this phase of home management have been borrowed from industry. Demonstrations underlie the courses developed during World War II in order to speed up production in factories. Three kinds were organized on a 10 hour basis each: Job Instruction Training, Job Methods Training and Job Relations Training, commonly referred to by their initials—JIT, JMT and JRT. The first two at least have implications for home management teaching.

The JIT course was based on both telling and demonstrating with reliance on the familiar principle of learning by doing. It recognized that training is different from simple repetition of words. The instruction consists essentially of three parts: (1) showing the process and talking; (2) having the worker try the process silently and (3) having the worker try again explaining as he goes along. Any one of these parts may be repeated as many times as is necessary. Emphasis is placed upon comfortable conditions both physical and mental under which the process takes place. Whatever is being taught is broken down into steps and for each step one or more key points are emphasized. For example

²³ Examples: "How America Spends its Money" series *Ladies Home Journal*. "Where Did All That Money Go?" *Changing Times* Vol. 15 (April 1961) pp. 21-27. "Living on \$6,000 a Year" *Changing Times* Vol. 11 (February 1959) pp. 8-15. "Living on \$11,500 a Year" *Changing Times* Vol. 15 (June 1959) pp. 21-26.

Careful analysis of the goals for a college course in home management and the resources available both human and nonhuman is necessary to determine whether the resident or nonresident approach is preferable in a specific situation. An analytical nonresident course may be more advantageous than a resident course with little emphasis placed on the managerial aspects of the experience. Nonresident courses may however result in mere verbalization of ideas rather than experiencing their application and they provide a less favorable atmosphere for change in behavior.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- BOREN Margaret A. W. *The Effect of Different Methods of Instruction in Work Simplification Principles among Home Management Students* Masters thesis Kansas State University 1959
- BUDOLFSON Marie. Good Management. *Forecast* I Vol 68 (December 1952) II Vol 69 (January 1953) III Vol 69 (February 1953)
- CUSHMAN Ella. *Management in Homes* (New York Macmillan 1945)
- DAVIS Jean. Nonresident Home Management for Married Students. *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 52 No 1 (January 1960) pp 20 22
- DUVALL Evelyn Millis. Research Finds High School Girls and the Tasks of Homemaking. *Marriage and Family Living* Vol 22 No 4 (November 1960) pp 368 369
- HALLAWAY Joann. Home Management Residence Uses Apartments. *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 52 No 4 (April 1960) pp 275 277
- Incorporating Home Management in 4-H Club Programs* Federal Extension Service U S Department of Agriculture Washington D C 1961
- KINDER Faye. *Meal Management* Rev ed (New York Macmillan 1962) pp 131 167
- KNOLL Marjorie and DAVY Alice J. A Two-in-One Course for Home Management Residence. *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 52 No 9 (November 1960) pp 754 755
- KURKER Evelyn. *Policies and Procedures Used in Home Management Residence Courses with Special Reference to the Married Students* Masters thesis University of Nebraska 1961
- MERRITT Marjorie. Job Methods Training for Housewives. *Forecast* Vol 61 (September 1945)
- MORGAN Etoile Jo. *Value and Goal Conceptions in the Residence Course in Home Management* Doctoral dissertation Texas Woman's University 1962 Abstracted in *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 55 No 3 (March 1963) pp 213 214
- PAOLLOCI Beatrice and EVERETT Esther. House Management Residence Looks Ahead to the Working Wife. *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 50 No 5 (May 1958) pp 331 334
- Proceedings of the Conference on Teaching Home Management* sponsored by the Family Economics-Home Management Section of the American Home

The value of J M T is not necessarily the production of a new solution but it inspires the J M T'er to invent a solution for her problem. It has strong personal appeal.

Two theses have attacked the problem of teaching work simplification to college students. In one *Time and Motion Study of Meal Preparation Techniques for the Purpose of Improving Instruction in Home Management*²⁵ the familiar method of preparing a standard menu twice²⁶ brought home to the individual student her own possible savings in movements and time. The other thesis *The Effect of Different Methods of Instruction in Work Simplification Principles Among Home Management Students*²⁷ compared the effectiveness of the techniques of 1) lecture alone 2) lecture plus demonstration (ironing a napkin) 3) lecture plus demonstration plus limited practice in ironing a napkin 4) lecture plus demonstration plus practice to acceptable standard of ironed napkin. Motions were counted before instruction immediately after it and five weeks later. All methods of instruction produced significant and lasting reduction in motions. The lecture alone method however was significantly less effective than any of the other methods.

SUMMARY

The teaching of home management as a part of the field of education in general and of home economics in particular is much affected by general concepts of the learning process. Nevertheless it offers certain problems definitely its own.

To be realistic it requires the setting of a family situation. Special teaching devices therefore include the use of homes of students and other homes, the sharing in experiences of homemakers and utilization of case studies.

Courses for varying levels—college, secondary school and adult—were discussed; the college resident course in considerable detail. The emphasis at the college level for many home economics majors is on this course because it offers opportunities for management in a living situation. The philosophy of a department or a college of home economics is exemplified in its resident course.

With the growing recognition of the importance of management in the home along with the administrative difficulties of the resident course, nonresident courses are receiving more attention than formerly. They are important not only for high school students, 4-H clubs and adult education groups but increasingly for some college students.

²⁵ R. M. Smith, Masters thesis, Washington State University, 1958.

²⁶ See Ch. 10 (Learning experience No. 1, p. 322).

²⁷ M. A. W. Ruten, Master's thesis, Kansas State University, 1959.

Economics Association at Purdue University July 13 1962 Distributed by the American Home Economics Association

SCHLATER Jean Davis and VINCENT Warren H Graduate Interdisciplinary Course in Management *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 54 No 9 (November 1962) pp 782-784

SMITH Roberta M *Time and Motion Study of Meal Preparation Techniques for the Purpose of Improving Instruction in Home Management* Master's thesis Washington State University 1958

WOOD Mildred Weigley in cooperation with HILL Alberta D and AMIDON Edna P *Management Problems of Homemakers Employed Outside the Home* Vocational Bull 289 Home Economics Series 33 U S Office of Education Washington D C 1961

some of the modern ones: care of resources including concern for the people of her household and supervision.³

With much patient detail he relates how he introduced his wife to her specific tasks and responsibilities. She must take charge of and keep strict account of all supplies, take care that garments were made for all who needed them from the raw wool brought into the house and see to it that the dried provisions were fit for eating. Upon her fell the burden of nursing the sick slaves until their recovery. She it was also who must train the unskilled slave girl to be an expert spinner. She must learn what were the best places in the house for storing wine and corn and for putting away couch coverings, vases, household vessels, implements and utensils for spinning, cooking, kneading bread, etc. Finally she was to consider herself the guardian of the laws established in the house and inspect the household furniture whenever she thought proper to signify her approbation if everything was in good condition, as the senate signifies its approval of the horses and horse soldiers, to praise and honour the deserving like a queen according to her means and to rebuke and disgrace anyone that required such treatment.

Aristotle turned his attention briefly to the choice making activities of home management in his *Politics*.⁴

[Thus] begins the duty of the manager of a household who has to order the things which nature supplies—he may be compared to the weaver who has not to make but to use wool and to know too what sort of wool is good and serviceable or bad and unserviceable. He ought also to know which things pay better than others and which pay best in particular places for some do better in one place and some in another.

Although not a matter of universal interest to the Greeks, the difficulties of budgeting for the future can be found in some of their writings. Theognis wrote:⁵

Current expenditure—to bring it all
Within the compass of our capital
Is a wise plan, but difficult withal
Could we beforehand ascertain the date
Of our existence, we might fix a rate
For our expense and make it more or less
But as it is we must proceed by guess
The road divides! which path am I to choose?
Perplex'd with opposite diverging views

³ Willstine Goodsell, *A History of the Family as a Social and Educational Institution* (New York: Macmillan, 1915), pp. 103-104.

⁴ *Politics*, Book I, Ch. III.

⁵ John Hookham Frere, *Works of Theognis, Rescued*, Vol. III (London: Pickering, 1874), pp. 419-420.

times and the greater amount of effort then required to produce goods there was originally a strong feeling that good management consisted solely in conservation of material things. Somewhat later historically speaking this interpretation was enlarged to include the saving of money which would buy material things. Conservation of time and energy are much newer concepts in management than is the sparing use of materials and money.

Until early peoples developed foresight the practice of management did not occur. This awaited the growth of knowledge.

One thing is fairly certain both to psychology and to common sense: there is a steady growth of providence parallel to and perhaps identical with the growth of knowledge. No one can provide for a future want until he learns what action in the present will so provide, and this knowledge has been steadily developing through the ages.²

How early foresight was developed is controversial and its origin differed from group to group. Certainly where there was communal living among preliterate peoples there was nothing approaching management by individual families, although there may have been in clan or tribal living.

Because of the importance of the Bible in our culture what the Hebrews thought about management of resources is important in our present thinking. The virtuous wife in Proverbs 31 has long been extolled in her performing of managerial functions. She seeketh wool and flax (v. 13); she allocates food to the members of her household (v. 15); she considereth a field and buyeth it (v. 16); she perceiveth [that is, judges] that her merchandise is good (v. 18); and she prepares her household for the coming winter as to clothing (v. 21). The praising of work that is the use of time and energy for productive purposes is also found in Proverbs 20:13, 6:6, 8.

Love not sleep, lest thou come to poverty; open thine eyes, and thou shalt be satisfied with bread.

Go to the ant, thou sluggard; consider her ways, and be wise: which having no guide, overseer, or ruler, provideth her meat in the summer, and gathereth her food in the harvest.

Modern American families also have social legacies from the Greeks and Romans. So, although we smile at some admonitions of the Greek Ischomachus to his child wife as told by Xenophon, the approved managerial activities she is to perform are not fundamentally different from

² Zens & C. Dickinson, *Economic Motives* (Cambridge: Harvard University, 1922), p. 259.

Work conquered all relentless obstinate
While poverty and hardship urged it on¹⁰

Somewhat closer to our own time an elderly French husband in the fourteenth century took upon himself the instructing of his girl wife in her managerial duties according to the rule of thumb procedures of their age.¹¹ His book *The Ménagier of Paris* consisted of three sections the middle one dealing with household management. Considerable attention was given to the selection and supervision of servants. As in the Greek treatise of Xenophon there was advice on the care of material goods such as clothing. The part on food not only included many recipes but described catering arrangements for great feasts. There was also a bit on time management of the young wife's day—when she was to arise and the order in which she was to carry out her daily activities.

The rise of capitalism in early modern times emphasized more than in periods preceding it the importance of using material goods sparingly and saving money either or both at the expense of time and energy. The spirit of modern capitalism stems in part from the kind of people who were the early capitalists—the bourgeoisie. Many of these bourgeoisie had been peasants in earlier generations and they [the peasants] endowed the society which emancipated them with the treasure of those rustic virtues—love of labour economy foresight and energy—which established Western civilization upon the most solid foundations.¹²

Protestantism furnished a religious underpinning for these bourgeoisie concepts and hence they became moral virtues as well as common patterns of behavior. In our own country according to the Puritan way of life.¹³

Enjoyment must not cost anything. To spend money upon one's self leads to unfaithfulness in stewardship. Frugality comes to be a cardinal virtue. Baxter says (in one of his sermons) Every penny which is paid upon yourselves or your children or your friends must be done by God's own appointment and to serve Him. Watch narrowly or else that thievish carnal self will leave God nothing.

Work was therefore exalted. The Puritan saw every poor person as work-shy or as a criminal.¹⁴

¹⁰ *Ibid.* p. 29

¹¹ Eileen Power *Medieval People* (London Methuen 1924) Ch. IV. *The Ménagier's Wife*

¹² P. B. Boissonnade *Life and Work in Medieval Europe* trans. by Eileen Power (New York Knopf 1927) p. 263

¹³ Kemper Fullerton "Calvinism and Capitalism" *Harvard Theological Review* Vol. 21 (1928) p. 187

¹⁴ Max Weber *General Economic History* (New York Greenberg 1927) p. 349

Say shall I struggle on to save and spare
 Or lead an easy life and banish care?
 Some have I seen with competence of wealth
 Indifferent to friendship pleasure health
 Struggling and saving till the final call
 Death sends his summons and confiscates all
 Allotting to the thankless heedless heir
 The produce of his economical care!

Yet others have I seen reckless of pell—

I take my pittance and I please myself—

Such was the jolly phrase the same gallant

Have I beheld an utter mendicant

In sad dependence at his latter end

Watching and importuning every friend

Our wiser course then Damocles I deem

Is that which steers aloof from each extreme

Not to consume my life with care and pain

Economizing for another's gain

And least of all to risk the future fears

Of indigence in my declining years

With this reflection therefore I incline

To lean a little to the saving line

For something should be left when life is fled

To purchase decent duty to the dead

Another Greek writer Hesiod praised work and effort ⁶

Love every seemly toil that so the store

Of foodful seasons heap thy garner's floor

From labor men returns of wealth behold

Flocks in their fields and in their coffers gold

From labor shalt thou with the love be blessed

Of men and gods the slothful they detest

These beliefs of the Greeks about management of resources were repeated by some Roman writers Cicero said I consider frugality the best revenue for private families and for States ⁷ Cato advocated the doctrine of continual work ⁸ and the poet Virgil spoke similarly

When a skilled farmer by long winter rains

Is bound indoors he finds occasion fair

For tasks at leisure which some later day

Would bid him slight in haste if skies were clear ⁹

⁶ C. A. Elton *Hesiod* (London: Lackington Allen 1812) p. 18

⁷ *De Re Publica* Keyes Translation (London: Heinemann 1929) p. 257

⁸ Fairfax Harrison *Roman Farm Management* (New York: Macmillan 1915) p. 53

⁹ *The Georgics and Eclogues of Virgil* trans. by T. C. Williams (Cambridge: Harvard University 1915) p. 11

or to clothing.¹⁸ Emma Willard and Catharine Beecher in their respective schools introduced such courses and probably also the rudiments of home management. Catharine Beecher was a prolific writer of text books and her *Treatise on Domestic Economy* (1841) is often referred to as the first home economics textbook. In her texts there are chapters on managerial topics such as On Habits of System and Order On Economy of Time and Expenses On the Care of Domestic On Early Rising.¹⁹ Her books have a strong moralistic tone recommending right managerial practices and condemning wrong ones. A generation later Maria Parloa introduced the term home management into the title of her textbook *First Principles of Home Management and Cookery* (1880). Only one short chapter in it however was given over to what might have been management (namely House Work) and its contents consisted merely of definite directions in numbered steps for performing a few household tasks. The rest of the book concerned food and physical environment.

Although little of home management was then found in school courses the ten Lake Placid Conferences (1899-1908) the cradle of home economics and the definite forerunner of the American Home Economics Association implicitly and explicitly accepted home management as a vital part of the new movement. On the very first pages of the first Conference report is the list of topics discussed including How can domestic science help the woman who does her own work? and Simplified methods of housekeeping.²⁰

These show an interest in what is now called work simplification. The decision made to consider it (home economics) a distinct section of the general subject of economics²¹ shows an interest in the economic aspects of management.

Careful reading of the proceedings of these early conferences indicates the unmistakable concern of the early home economists with the values and goals which underlie managerial decisions. There was much emphasis on right living — the ultimate aim of such (home economics) instruction is to give the girl a realizing sense of her responsibilities — to make her feel that whether she be wife mother or sister — on her rests the decision of the problems as to whether the home shall be the place wherein each member shall reach his or her highest physical intellectual and spir-

¹⁸ Keturah E. Baldwin *The AHEA Saga* (Washington: American Home Economics Association 1949).

¹⁹ Catharine E. Beecher *Treatise on Domestic Economy* (Boston: Marsh, Capen, Lyon and Webb 1841).

²⁰ *Lake Placid Conference on Home Economics: Proceedings of the First, Second and Third Conferences* (Lake Placid, N. Y. 1901) pp. 3-4.

²¹ *Ibid.* p. 5.

The application to the home manager of the economic virtues described in this section is given in a sixteenth-century English poem ¹⁵

For husbandry weepeth
Where huswifery sleepeth
And hardly he creepeth
Up ladder to thrift

The huswife is she that to labour doth fall
The labour of her I do huswifery call
If thrift by that labour be honestly got,
Then is it good huswifery else it is not

Ill huswifery one thing
Or other must crave
Good huswifery nothing
But needful will have

Ill huswifery craveth
In secret to borrow
Good huswifery saveth
Today for tomorrow

Our own Benjamin Franklin emphasized the importance of using time for the primary purpose of producing material goods and services

It would be thought a hard government that should tax its people one tenth part of their TIME to be employed in its service but idleness taxes many of us much more if we reckon all that is spent in absolute sloth or doing of nothing with that which is spent in idle employments or amusement that amount to nothing ¹⁶

If you were a servant would you not be ashamed that a good master should catch you idle? Are you then your own master? Be ashamed to catch yourself idle as Poor Dick says ¹⁷

HOME MANAGEMENT IN THE HOME ECONOMICS MOVEMENT

In such an intellectual climate with its high valuation of materials and money attention to household and family matters began to find its way into the schools. Such courses were given as early as 1821 and were directed almost entirely toward the things of the home either to food

¹⁵ Thomas Tusser *Five Hundred Points of Good Husbandry together with A Book of Huswifery* William Mavor ed (London 1812) pp 236 241 278 279

¹⁶ Benjamin Franklin *Poor Richard's Almanack* (Boston Houghton 1886) ¶ 10

¹⁷ *ib id.* p 11

tual development.²² Teachers of home economics²³ should themselves as far as possible be examples of good valuations and prompt revaluations.²⁴ Ellen H. Richards, the guiding spirit of the Lake Placid Conferences, emphasized values in many of her contributions. Her well-known Creed for Home Economics²⁵ developed for a home economics exhibit at the St. Louis Exposition in 1904 emphasized values. It was published in the Proceedings of the Sixth Annual Conference.

At her final summing up of the ten years of the Lake Placid Conference Mrs. Richards in a forward look said: "The present aim of the Lake Placid Conference is to teach the American people chiefly through the medium of the schools the management of their homes on economic lines as to time and energy. Once the essentials of the home life are settled they must be made a part of every child's education."²⁶

DEVELOPMENT OF HOME MANAGEMENT AS A FIELD OF STUDY

In tracing back the separate strands that together make up the field of home management, the establishing of school and college courses mirrors the line of development. Books, conferences, research projects, the activities of special organizations and government agencies—all contribute to this development. Something of changes in courses and a full description of present day types have been given in the chapter on teaching home management. Here we shall look first at the content of the early courses, then briefly view the changes in courses in home management in five stages.

Stages of Development

These stages are not sharply separated one from the other, nor do all the characteristics of earlier stages cease to be present in later ones. Rather the emphasis changes. The stages may be listed as:

- Stage I—Dumping ground period
- Stage II—Resource centered emphasis
- Stage III—Human-centered emphasis
- Stage IV—Process-centered emphasis
- Stage V—Values and decision making emphasis

In the first stage home management courses were largely dumping grounds for any home economics context that was definitely not food

²²Ibid. p. 31

²³Ibid. p. 89

²⁴See p. 146

²⁵Proceedings of the Tenth Annual Conference p. 25

She then commented sadly. But it may be true—that the note was struck a quarter of a century before people were ready to heed it.

Each succeeding stage in the development of home management was the result of definite forces to be explained in more detail below. As it began to take shape as a field, Stage II brought emphasis on the separate resources. Stage III shifted emphasis to the people in the home, their goals and values, and was human-centered. Stage IV focused upon the Process of Management. Stage V emphasizes the making of decisions along with the choice of values underlying decisions. No one of these four latter stages is cut off sharply from its predecessors, nor should it be.

Decision making as a field of study has a history of its own as well as a history of its entrance into home management. From a philosophical standpoint, it has been a concern of man for thousands of years. In modern times, and chiefly since World War II when statistical decision making came to the fore, it has permeated many disciplines. Hazel Lyrk³⁰ gave three reasons for its entrance into home management: development of freedom of choice in the economic world; development of the management function in business with its emphasis on decision making; and growth of knowledge such as that of nutrition, forcing decisions in areas where tradition had formerly prevailed. Another influence favoring the inclusion of decision making was its gaining a place in farm management³¹ and business management.

Work Simplification

The introduction of work simplification into the field of home management has strongly influenced its content. Its beginnings came largely through the influence of Mrs. Christine Frederick and Mrs. Lillian Gilbreth. Both were young wives of efficiency engineers in the early 20th century. Prior to 1900, industry became conscious of the time and energy phases of management. The efficiency engineer was created from the blending of economics and engineering. The founders were largely engineers, shop men, and they called their movement among other names, scientific management.³² Frederick Taylor was its promoter, though not originator, and his name was given to the Taylor Society organized to promote efficiency. His famous experiment with the Bethlehem Steel Company on the loading of pig iron showed spectacular results.

³⁰ "Home Management—Making Practical Decisions," *Rural Family Living* (November 1955), p. 21.

³¹ L. A. Bradford and G. L. Johnson, *Farm Management Analysis* (New York: Wiley, 1955).

³² Lillian Gilbreth, lecture at Purdue Institute of Work Simplification for Home Management Specialists, 1943.

The distinction between the two fields is that family economics is more concerned with social resources to reach social goals home management with family resources to reach family goals An example of the difference is

Family problem to provide appropriate life insurance protection for the family

Managerial aspects—investigating kinds and costs of insurance deciding who in the family shall be insured and for how much

*Economic aspects—reducing costs of insurance of given types and quality*³⁵

These two areas are co-ordinate and overlapping not one subordinate to the other Thus almost all problems connected with the management of the family's money resource lead into problems of family economics The same is true in a less discernible degree of the management of all other family resources The overlapping of the two areas is not only in the common facts used but in the reciprocal effect of the decisions of many individual families upon the economy and of the economy upon the decisions of individual families Consumer economics may be considered a subordinate part of family economics not a different name for the whole area

Conferences

Since the 1920's there has been a succession of conferences dealing directly or indirectly with home management There have been single gatherings and also connected series of conferences From each have come forward steps in analyzing the field and an increasing consensus of opinion as to what home management is In this brief description of the conferences we shall give for each besides its time place and method of procedure its aims and accomplishments in developing home management

The first to our knowledge was the Teachers College Conference on Homemaking held at Columbia University in 1927³⁶ Mrs Gilbreth and Professor Emma H Gunther were the guiding spirits There were eight one-day meetings held at intervals of one week Although the term home management does not appear in the title the content of the planned programs consisted of phases of work simplification (scientific management as it was then called) in terms borrowed from industry Apparently the discussions covered much wider aspects of homemaking than the program indicated because the published report included only one chapter specifically on work simplification Among the eight others were

³⁵ Correspondence with Margaret Liston Iowa State University

³⁶ *Homemaking as a Center for Research* (New York Teachers College Columbia University 1927)

by the *Do-en's*) later made into a film caused many people to be conscious of and interested in work simplification.

The Lathrop Work Simplification Conference (1913) made possible by a grant from the General Education Board was a two-weeks school for learning industrial techniques used in making motion and time studies and for formulating plans to apply these techniques to household tasks. It followed an earlier conference for extension specialists in farm management which had been inspired by the war-motivated emphasis on work simplification in industry. Mary Bokahr, then head of home management specialists in the U. S. Department of Agriculture Extension Service, was instrumental in promoting it. Many of the 33 home economists in attendance from the several states were extension specialists and they took their new information directly back to adult groups in rural areas. This was probably the first time that findings from the industrial field were made directly available to those actively engaged in household tasks.

Since World War II medical people through national and state heart associations have promoted work simplification for physically handicapped women. Originally planned for heart patients' courses in time and motion economy and demonstration centers of suitable work areas (sometimes called "Heart Kitchens") have been made available to many types of the physically handicapped—arthritics, hemiplegics, tubercular patients and so forth. Because of their strong motivation handicapped women have gladly accepted the principles of work simplification and quickly applied them to their own situations. These programs have been in existence since 1918. Persons active in their development beside Mrs. Gilbreth, who was a moving spirit, include Julia S. Judson, then of the Institute of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation of New York University Bellevue Medical Center; Ruth Kettunen at Michigan State University; Elizabeth Eckhardt May at the University of Connecticut; and Frances Sanderson at Wayne State University.

Home Management and Family Economics

Another general influence on the content of the home management field was the partial separation of family economics from home management. When the American Home Economics Association set up subject matter groups in 1910 there was a Family Economics Division but not for 16 years was Home Management incorporated into it. These were formative years for the field of home management and the interrelationship of family economics with it was left unclarified during that period.

ing of thinking among the committee members which was helpful to the movement. In addition the importance of home management in family living was publicly highlighted by including it as a special phase of the Conference. Attention was also called to the variations in home management at different stages of the family life cycle.

In 1950 Cornell University called a three-day home management conference following the AHEA meetings in Boston. About 35 professional home management persons in addition to Cornell staff members attended. It was planned by Dr. Helen Canon and her staff. This conference differed from preceding ones in that it concentrated largely on one phase of management—Implementing a Family Centered Philosophy of Management. Each topic was opened with a short keynote talk after which full and free discussion followed.

In 1952 the first of the AHEA sponsored conferences, attended by about 50 persons, was held at Ohio State University with Christine Newark as Chairman of the Planning Committee. It explored research in home management and furnished an opportunity for intensive discussion of research needs in Home Management (general), Activities Area (time, energy, fatigue, work simplification), Money Management and Consumer Problems.

In 1955 Irma H. Gross and home management staff at Michigan State University called a three-day conference on Values and Decision Making in Home Management. It was attended by 85 professional persons from about half of the states of the United States and from two foreign countries. Besides home economists its speakers came from the fields of philosophy and agricultural economics. Its purpose was to highlight the newer phases of home management theory and to develop insights into their meaning and importance.

Special conferences have been held to promote work simplification for handicapped women. The first³⁸ of these devoted entirely to this purpose was a Leaders' Workshop on Principles of Work Simplification Applied to Problems of Physically Handicapped Homemakers held in 1953 sponsored by the Schools of Home Economics, Business Administration and Physical Therapy of the University of Connecticut with Dean Elizabeth Eckhardt May as Coordinator. A general seminar held a year earlier on Problems of Disabled Homemakers had included work simplification as one aspect. This was sponsored by the Institute of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation of New York University Bellevue Medical Center and was arranged for the Home Service Personnel of electric utilities whose companies established the Disabled Homemakers Research

³⁸ Correspondence with Julia Judson.

one each on time management and money management. The stated purpose of the meetings was to raise questions and to serve as a critique of the home. About 240 persons attended each session, largely homemakers and college students.

The next trio of home management conferences was called by the Office of Education in 1934, 1935, and 1937. They were two-day meetings just preceding or following the annual meetings of the American Home Economics Association and were limited to 30 or 40 trained persons. It was through these conferences that the field was first defined with any accuracy and that the importance of people in relation to management in homes was first highlighted. In the first conference differing concepts of home management were evaluated and a definition of home management to which members of the group could subscribe was set up. Ways and means of guiding college students in managing certain resources so as to contribute to human values were discussed.² At the second and third conferences the definition was revised somewhat and experiences toward reaching managerial proficiency were presented and evaluated. Edna Amidon and Beulah Coon, of the Office of Education staff, were instrumental in organizing and carrying through these conferences. Although they were pointed toward the teaching of home management in colleges, those in attendance were not entirely limited to college teachers.

One other early home management conference of about 40 persons was held in late 1941 at Kansas State College, spearheaded by Ruth Lindquist. For the first time a conference included extension specialists and a sprinkling of homemakers and men. Its long-run value was the wider acceptance of basic concepts developed in earlier conferences.

In 1947 Irma H. Gross and staff at Michigan State College called a home management conference, the first of the workshop type. It combined a one-week series of meetings with a three-week workshop and attracted 50 persons: teachers and administrators, extension specialists, research workers, and persons from the business field. During the first week the entire group considered different phases of management; for the second two weeks groups concentrated on specific areas.

A conference different from any that preceded or followed it was the one held as a part of the National Conference on Family Life in Washington, D. C., in May 1948. Although the actual meeting was relatively short and unimportant, the six-month careful preparation for it under the chairmanship of Dr. Paulena Nickell, then of Iowa State College, resulted in much clarifying of fundamental concepts of home management. During the development of these materials there occurred unity

² *Some Factors Involved in the Teaching of Home Management in Colleges*. U. S. Office of Education, Misc. 2119 (1938), p. 5.

Two texts published in the early 1900s made home management their chief concern. *Home Management* (1906) by Bertha Terrill was one of a series published as texts for correspondence courses in home economics. Her handling of subject matter was very sketchy in most management areas and heavily weighted toward food buying. *The Modern Household* (1912) by Marion Talbot and Sophonisba Breckinridge of the University of Chicago was a slender volume with a definite point of view that the home is a unit of the community. It stressed the interrelationship of the two.

Benjamin Andrews' book *Economics of the Household* (1924) although not entitled *Home Management* covered many topics definitely in the field and treated them from the standpoint of the individual family.

A little volume *Trends and Needs in Home Management* by Helen Judy published in 1929 pointed up the necessity for defining the field for omitting nonmanagerial material in home management courses and for preparing instructors for teaching management.

The early 30s saw the publication of Wood Lindquist and Studley's *Managing the Home*. The authors brought together the most recent material then available on the use of the general resources of the home—time, energy, and money—and the specific material resources such as food, clothing, and shelter.

Of other books affecting the development of the home management field published in the 1930s, texts in family economics such as Kyrk's *Economic Problems of the Family* and Reid's *The Economics of Household Production* offered excellent material chiefly on the resource of money but with some attention to time and energy.

A later published trio of texts—Gross and Lewis' *Home Management* (1938), Nickell and Dorsey' *Management in Family Living* (1941), and Bonde' *Management in Daily Living* (1944)—all leaned heavily on the concepts of home management developed in the conferences of the 30s. They emphasized human-centered goals. Nickell and Dorsey also stressed management of the specific material resources following the Wood Lindquist and Studley pattern. Bonde reintroduced household skills as tools toward management.

When Gross and Crandall published *Home Management in Theory and Practice* (1947) and Nickell and Dorsey revised their text (1950),⁴¹ both books used the concept of process as important in understanding management. Gross and Crandall used the term *steps* in management and Nickell and Dorsey *activities* to indicate the essential parts of the process of management.

Another text of the mid forties, Cushman's *Management in Homes*

⁴¹ Second revision, 1959.

Fund under which the first research was done for homemakers handicapped by other than cardiac conditions

Since the mid 1950's the number of state wide regional and national conferences workshops and seminars on home management has steadily increased Their value for disseminating knowledge and for further developing theory in home management is widely recognized Some are developed by colleges some by the Family Economics Home Management Division of the AHEA and most recently by the Home Economics Division of the Association of State Universities and Land Grant Colleges³⁹ This last gathering turned its attention to the ongoing development of theory seeking for basic concepts in home management especially those common to all of home economics Although the working group in home management was small it was evident that there was great difficulty in formulating concepts and in agreeing upon them The progress report of the group and that of a follow up committee indicates the need for further review and clarification of the basic concepts of management

Books

Books in a field are often milestones in its development The few books on household economy written previous to the present century all recorded as guiding principles for home management the commonly accepted practices of their place and time A review of most of the early texts in home economics would reveal glimpses of home management No phase of home economics exists that does not owe its debt of gratitude to Ellen H Richards Her little volume *The Cost of Living as Modified by Sanitary Science* has much in it that today would be classified as home management The book devotes most of its chapters to the various costs (in money time and energy) of commodities used in family living such as food and clothing The first chapter entitled Standards of Living and the last The Organization of the Household are definitely related to management Mrs Richards summing up of managerial abilities on her last page is in part a forerunner of present day thinking⁴⁰

The twentieth century household demands of its managers first of all a scientific understanding of the sanitary requirements of a human habitation second a knowledge of the values absolute and relative of the various articles which are used in the house including food third a system of account keeping that shall make possible a close watch upon expenses fourth an ability to secure from others the best they have to give and to maintain a high standard of honest work

³⁹ Progress Report of Home Economics Seminar July 24-28 1961 French Lick Indiana College of Home Economics Michigan State University pp 11-34 Marjorie M Knoll Toward a Conceptual Framework in Home Management *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 55 No 5 (May 1963) pp 335-339

⁴⁰ Ellen H Richards *The Cost of Living* (New York Wiley 1900) p 118

less than 5 per cent were concerned with housing household equipment family life and so forth ⁴⁴ Anything in home management research would be included in this 5 per cent In addition to Purnell money there is some support in the various stations from state funds In a 1961 analysis of the research in the experiment stations ⁴⁵ home management was still not listed as such among subject matter areas A few specific aspects were included under other areas such as decision making under consumer behavior and family security The very special research area of consumer buying has in a few places been supported by funds from the Research and Marketing Act of 1946

A minor amount of support from commercial sources has made possible some research in work simplification especially work areas and also in household equipment

In its earlier stages home management research was concerned with over all management and with management of specific resources More recently research in decision making and the process of management has appeared Examples of each are listed below With one exception only those done under home economics auspices are given

I Over-all Management

A Three studies of factors influencing home management

- 1 Irma H Gross and Evelyn A Zwemer *Management in Michigan Homes* (out of print) and Irma H Gross *Measuring Home Management* ⁴⁶
- 2 Alice C Thorpe and Irma H Gross *Managerial Practices in the Homes of Married Students at Michigan State College* ⁴⁷
- 3 Dorothy Greey Van Bortel and Irma H Gross *Study of Home Management in Two Socio Economic Classes* ⁴⁸

The first of these three studies analyzed managerial practices chiefly against income residence and education The second study covered a younger and more homogeneous group and compared their practices with those of the earlier group The third study not only compared management in two different socio economic classes but introduced the usage of psychological techniques such as sentence completion and projective stories

II Dorothy Dickens *Effects of Good Household Management on Family Living* (1913) ⁴⁹

Differences in levels of living of families with similar incomes related

⁴⁴ Georgian Adams *Trends in Home Economics Research* talk at Land Grant College Assn meeting Kansas City October 25 1949

⁴⁵ M H Minden *Home Economics Research in the Experiment Stations Journal of Home Economics* Vol 54 No 1 (January 1962) pp 32-35

⁴⁶ Mich Agr Exp Sta Circular Bull 211 (1948)

⁴⁷ Mich Agr Exp Sta *Quarterly Bulletin* Vol 32 (February 1950) pp 288-306

⁴⁸ Mich Agr Exp Sta Tech Bull 240 (1954)

⁴⁹ Mich Agr Exp Sta Bull 380

is a book of case studies in management. It emphasized particularly physical changes in homes as promoting more harmonious family living. A large proportion of the content was illustrations.

Fitzsimmons' text *The Management of Family Resources* (1950) emphasizes goals and values and the management of money touching very lightly upon time and energy.

In 1954 the first edition of the present text was published. It included some emphasis on decision making in home management. Also in 1954 Goodyear and Klohr in *Managing for Effective Living*, highlighted goal values as the mainspring of management and a semi popular book *Management in the Home* by Gilbreth Thomas and Clymer considered chiefly work simplification. In 1958 the Malones in *Decision Making for Farm and Home* brought those types of management together.

In the late 50's for the first time two books entirely devoted to management were written for high school students. Starr *Management for Better Living* (1958) and Fitzsimmons and White *Management for You* (1959).

Research

There is no attempt in this brief discussion of research in home management to catalogue even the major pieces. They are compiled at intervals by the Family Economics Home Management Division⁴² of the AHEA. Findings from many research projects have been used in earlier sections of this book and are described in appropriate places. Here we shall trace briefly the beginnings and present development, the various types and special needs for further research.

It is not necessary to make out a case for research. Mrs. Richards briefly stated the need for it in 1903. Manual training schools and domestic science courses in small colleges are often offering work along lines which are not yet explored. The student is thus cheated into supposing he has a knowledge which the world does not possess.⁴³ The home management field has a long road to travel before its teachings are securely based on research, the life blood of education.

If one includes the sister field of family economics, there was considerable research done before the twentieth century, but true home management research probably began with the passage of the Purnell Act in 1925. That act provided support through the state experiment stations for economic and sociological investigations having for their purpose the development and improvement of the rural home and rural life. Twenty four years after its passage of the more than 600 projects then in process

⁴² J. Davis and R. Deacon, *Selected Bibliography of Theses and Research in Family Economics and Home Management* (Washington D. C. AHEA 1961).

⁴³ *Proceeding of 5th Lake Placid Conference* 1903 p. 70.

II Time

- 1 The first great Purnell study conducted through several state experiment stations in the 1920's was on patterns of use of time
- 2 Jean Warren *Use of Time in Its Relation to Home Management*⁵⁸ deepened the understanding of time management especially through the development of a quantitative workload unit for accurate comparison of the work done in different households
- 3 Kathryn Walker *Homemaking Work Units for New York State Households* (1957)⁵⁹ further developed the concept of the work load
- 4 Elizabeth Wiegand *Comparative Use of Time of Farm and City Full Time Homemakers and Homemakers in the Labor Force in Relation to Home Management* (1954)⁶⁰ and Cowles and Dietz *Time Spent in Homemaking Activities by a Selected Group of Wisconsin Farm Homemakers* (1956)⁶¹ provided later studies of patterns of use of time in relation to various factors
- 5 Rose E. Steidl *Continuity of Household Work*^{*} (1963) went beyond patterns of use of time to attack the problem of the organization of time

C Energy

Because the concept of management of energy is being expanded to include effective use of the body and avoidance of fatigue research in this broad area is taking several directions

1 Energy Costs

- a Energy costs of certain household tasks⁶² in their entirety were first studied by Langworthy and Barott (1920) later by Swartz (1933)
- b Elements of movements⁶³ were studied by Esther Crew Bratton of Cornell University This type of research is also carried on under the direction of Earl McCracken of the Agricultural Research Service of the USDA

2 Effective Use of the Body

Elaine Knowles Weaver's doctoral dissertation *Posture and Other Physiological Responses of the Worker in Relation to the Height of Working Surfaces Used in Household Ironing* (Cornell University 1944) was the earliest of these studies Bratton is continuing work in this area

3 Fatigue

Gross and Bartley *Fatigue in House Care*⁶⁴ (1951) and Wiegand and Gross *Fatigue of Home Makers with Young Children*⁶⁵ (1958) pioneered in this area

⁵⁸ Cornell Univ Agr Exp Sta Bull 734 1940

⁵⁹ Cornell Univ Agr Exp Sta Memoir 353

⁶⁰ Cornell Univ Agr Exp Sta Memoir 330

⁶¹ *Journal of Home Economics* Vol 48 No 1 (January 1956) pp 29-35

Cornell Univ Agr Exp Sta Memoir 383

⁶² See Appendix p 549 and p 250

⁶³ See p 231

⁶⁴ *Journal of Applied Psychology* Vol 35 (June 1951)

⁶⁵ Mich Agr Exp Sta Tech Bull 265

to the level of home management achieved by the homemaker. Although the unit of measurement was not rigidly defined, true measuring devices were used.

II *Decision Making and the Management Process*

A *Decision Making*⁵⁰

A trickle of studies of this phase of management is beginning to come from home economics sources. Their titles indicate the special type of decision investigated.

- 1 M. J. Davis *Decision Making in Relation to the Performance of Household Activities in New York State Homes* (1958)⁵¹
- 2 Honey Britton Hotchkiss *Decision Making in the Use of Family Financial Resources* (1959)⁵²
- 3 Schomaker and Thorpe *Financial Decision Making of Rural Families in Michigan* (1962)⁵³

B *The Management Process and Decision Making*

- 1 R. Hill *Changing Patterns of Family Planning and Decision Making*⁵⁴

This study, though outside the home economics field, is included here because it concerns various aspects of the management process as practiced by different generations.

- 2 C. O'Brien *The Managerial Process Used in Food Shopping*⁵⁵
- 3 C. O'Brien and D. Price "An Investigation of the Traditional Concept of Management"⁵⁶

III *Separate Resources*

A *Money*

- 1 Although more accurately listed as research in family economics, the Consumer Purchases Study (1935-1936) of the (then) Bureau of Home Economics and the Bureau of Labor Statistics furnished the most complete picture yet obtained of family incomes and their specific uses. Data were obtained from city, village, and farm families in carefully selected areas of the entire United States from families of different sizes and types and with different incomes.
- 2 A very different type of study was Virginia Britton Oliver's analysis of the financial history of 12 families traced over a period of not less than 20 years each.⁵⁷ It is entitled *Case Studies of the Economic Experience of Selected Families During Their Life Span*.

⁵⁰ See pp. 79-82.

⁵¹ Ph. D. thesis, Cornell University.

⁵² Penn. Agr. Exp. Sta. Bull. 643.

⁵³ Mich. Agr. Exp. Sta. Forthcoming *Quarterly Bulletin* article.

⁵⁴ Described in Reuben Hill, "Patterns of Decision Making and the Accumulation of Family Assets," Nelson Foote (Ed.), *Household Decision Making* (New York: New York University Press, 1961), pp. 57-80.

⁵⁵ Mich. Agr. Exp. Sta. Tech. Bull. 282, 1961.

⁵⁶ *Quarterly Bulletin*, Mich. Agr. Exp. Sta., Vol. 44, No. 4 (May 1962), pp. 714-725.

⁵⁷ Unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of Chicago, 1948.

standable by the homemaker the use of minimum specifications where grading is not obtainable or at least simple informative statements on labels. Its short lived *Consumer Speaks* project was an attempt to encourage consumers to bring the attention of manufacturers to the characteristics they wanted in goods.

The National Council on Family Relations has as its particular function bringing to the study of the family all the factors affecting the interplay of personal relationships. Occasionally it has included home management as a factor and has published pertinent articles in *Marriage and Family Living*.

Meetings of international organizations such as the International Management Congress and the International Congress of Home Economics have occasionally called forth papers that were milestones in the development of home management. Such was Lawrence K. Frank's *The Philosophy of Home Management*.⁷⁰ The International Congress of Home Economics publishes material on home management in its journal *L'Enseignement Ménager*.

Government Agencies

Lastly in the development of home management we shall consider special phases of it that are a part of the federal government.

CONSUMER AND FOOD ECONOMICS RESEARCH OF THE AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH SERVICE OF THE UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE

The Bureau of Home Economics established in 1923 had by 1924 a Division of Family Economics. That Division has continued under a variety of names and has been headed by the following women all trained in economics:

1924-1935—Hildegard Kneeland
 1935-1942—Day Monroe
 1942-1944—Helen Jeter
 1945-1948—Margaret Reid
 1948-1953—Gertrude S. Weiss
 1953 to date—Faith Clark

Its research projects have included or now include

1. Nationwide surveys of family incomes and expenditures notably the Consumers Purchases Study 1935-1936

⁷⁰ *Proceedings of Seventh International Management Congress* Vol. 7 (September 1935).

II Work Simplification⁶⁶

Early studies covered specific household tasks—ironing dishwashing cleaning vegetables bed making meal preparation. The dishwashing study by Heiner and Vedder (1930)⁶⁷ is probably the first. It had many uncontrolled variables but opened up this field of research.

The great needs in research are partly quantitative and partly qualitative. We need more studies of all kinds but we need especially 1) studies in the mental activities that constitute management not only decision making in general but the specific phases of management 2) studies of problems stemming from the interrelationship of the resources in management 3) studies analyzing the sum total of resources used for attaining specific goals 4) studies analyzing patterns of values and their interrelationships instead of merely noting the presence of discrete values 5) techniques utilizing the newer methods of research in probing motivation in management 6) investigations of the newer concepts of energy management and 7) studies probing into the various aspects of work.⁶⁸

Organizations

The development of the home management field has been aided by the American Home Economics Association. This organization has a special subject matter section and committees interested in the field and the *Journal of Home Economics* provides the chief outlet for articles on home management. It had a Division of Family Economics from 1930 to 1946 and has had a Division of Family Economics-Home Management since 1946. In Division meetings significant papers have been presented many of which were later published in the *Journal of Home Economics*. Committees of the Division have collected and disseminated information such as the compilation of research studies referred to above. The Division has also significantly served as a meeting ground for exchange of ideas among persons interested in this field. *New Directions of the AHEA* (1960) highlighted the importance of management.

The part of the AHEA in the consumer movement in the United States—so closely related to money management—has been traced by Ruth O'Brien.⁶⁹ Its Consumer Interests Committee was established in the 20's to initiate conduct and promote association activities which will improve the position of families as purchasers of food clothing and household items. It has promoted the use of quality grading systems under

⁶⁶ See pp. 287 ff.

⁶⁷ *Journal of Home Economics* Vol. 22 pp. 393-407.

⁶⁸ E. C. Bratton, "Concepts of Energy and Work in Home Management," *Journal of Home Economics* Vol. 50 No. 2 (February 1959) p. 104.

⁶⁹ "The Consumer Movement in the United States," *Journal of Home Economics* Vol. 41 (November 1949) pp. 305-308.

Broadly speaking extension projects in home management now include family economics work simplification housing and household equipment. They are geared toward the family approach in developing a philosophy of life that will guide families in making decisions as to relative values. These programs include information on developing an awareness of and a need for a better understanding of the application of management principles in the home. This approach develops competencies in the improvement of managerial abilities and stresses the importance of human and family relationships to successful management.

The effects of extension programs may be gleaned from recent reports.¹² In 1960 the average county home demonstration agent aided 305 families with consumer buying problems on the purchase of household equipment. Progress made over a 5 year period in a few of the many achievements in which families were assisted follows:

<i>Activities</i>	<i>Families assisted</i>		<i>Counties reporting</i>	
	<i>1955</i>	<i>1960</i>	<i>1955</i>	<i>1960</i>
Family financial planning	302 765	615 637	2 280	2 516
Keeping and analyzing home records	191 890	326 942	2 274	2 449
Family legal matters	212 726	376 925	1 743	2 075
Arriving at management decisions	541 039	798 554	2 558	2 682
Improving housekeeping methods	779 680	1 001 440	2 673	2 769
Improving kitchen or laundry	277 716	359 967	2 759	2 830
Remodeling and repairing the home	184 349	255 300	2 816	2 881
Improving storage space	320,526	359 967	2 699	2 830

The Farm and Home Development program is a joint project of agriculture and home economics involving both husbands and wives. It began during the 1930s and though many changes have been made in procedures its purpose remains basically what its name indicates, namely the intermeshing of farm and home financial planning to improve the standard of living. The emphasis upon this program varies among states. Its basic principles are like those of a similar program in the Farmers Home Administration that began about the same time and continued until 1955.

THE FUTURE OF HOME MANAGEMENT

Home management has developed and will continue to develop as a professional field directly through special courses and indirectly as it continues to draw from other relevant fields and as its principles con-

¹² Correspondence with Stella L. Mitchell, Federal Extension Service.

- Small scale special purpose surveys to provide information on specific questions such as change in management practices when women take employment outside the home
- § Investigations of the manner in which families adjust to various types of change such as to a different stage of the life cycle

In addition to its research activities the Family Economics Branch of Consumer and Family Economics Research prepares research based materials for the Annual Outlook Conference publishes quarterly the *Family Economics Review* and develops research based information on money and time management. The Annual Outlook Conference originated in 1922 by the Bureau of Agricultural Economics and the Extension Service provides a means of getting research results to families through home economists of the Extension Service. The *Family Economics Review* provides very valuable information on the economic aspects of home management. It is distributed to home economists of the Extension Service and on request to college teachers research workers and administrators.

COOPERATIVE EXTENSION SERVICE

A very important medium for interesting and instructing groups in home management is the Cooperative Extension Service of the United States Department of Agriculture and the state Land Grant Colleges. Originally for rural women it now reaches urban women in many areas. Established by the Smith Lever Act in 1914 extension work is carried on in every state and territory in the Union. By 1915 one state Minnesota had a home management specialist Mary Bull who served in that capacity for 18 years. In 1961 every state except Alaska had one or more home management specialists. There were 95 in all. Mary Bokahr held the position of Extension Economist (home management specialist at the Federal level) from 1929 to 1953.

In the beginning Extension Service programs in home management were concerned with management of time and money with demonstrations centered around efficient arrangement of kitchen equipment step saving methods and analysis of home accounts. However an early publication *An Analysis of the Managerial Responsibilities of the Farm Home Maker*¹¹ pointed up the importance of choice making in a home situation and was intended to clarify home management concepts. As homemakers activities changed so extension service programs have changed keeping pace with the times and newer knowledge made available through many sources.

¹¹ C. H. Schopmeyer *An Analysis of the Managerial Responsibilities of the Farm Home Maker*. U. S. Dept. of Agriculture unpublished paper 1929.

sciously permeate other areas of home economics. The last named way is particularly important in order to interest more persons in specializing in the field. As long as there are relatively few undergraduate majors and most openings in home management require graduate training, interest may have to be aroused through vision of the possibilities of management linked with the study of foods, of clothing, of shelter, and of equipment.

For orderly development of the field, there must eventually be a common core of knowledge of the basic concepts of management comparable to those in nutrition. We have yet to achieve even a common terminology or at least to use it in clearly defined ways acceptable to all specialists in the field. In this common core will be consideration of the values and goals underlying management, knowledge of decision making as its fundamental tool, and an understanding of a managerial process.

The need for more research is self-evident in this, as in all other fields. In management, however, we need not only more of the types already undertaken, but a branching out into other types, particularly those which deepen our understanding of human behavior in relation to management and those which make management interpretations based on the interrelated use of resources. Interdisciplinary research may be necessary to handle the many facets of management. Particularly if management can be shown through research to be linked with desirable results in family relationships, as Locke has shown in connection with adjustment in marriage, will there be a special reason for further development in the field?

Along with research to provide the fundamental knowledge, there must come improvement in the techniques of imparting this knowledge at all educational levels. At the graduate level, interdisciplinary courses recently introduced at some universities may serve several purposes, among them showing similar basic concepts and principles yet providing varying applications and stimulating participating teachers as well as students.

The growth of home management as a professional field will, we hope, make homemakers increasingly aware of the importance of management. The tracing of the history of home management in this chapter has pointed up (1) that management has always existed, and (2) that women have been relatively unconscious of, or at least not vocal about, its scope and process.

Another factor spurring the development of home management is its importance in a world of change. Conscious management makes adjustment to change easier. As automation eliminates much physical work, decision making will become even more important than at present.

A notable present-day change is the increase in the gainful employ-

Appendix

SHORT RATING SCALE FOR HOME MANAGEMENT

There is no specific "passing" score the homemaker will gain most by analyzing the areas in which her scores are high and those in which they are low and how they can be improved. Score any number of points up to the maximum for each item.

I	How important are goals and purposes for yourself and your family?	10
A	Do you have any toward which you are working?	5
B	Are they more concerned with people than with things?	5
II	How do you make decisions?	10
A	Do you find several alternatives when making important decisions?	5
B	Do you take time to weigh alternatives?	5
III	How do you rate on time planning?	15
A	Do you have a work plan?	5
B	Do you plan to get enough rest and sleep to be reasonably free of fatigue?	5
C	Do you plan leisure time activities for yourself and with your family?	5
IV	How do you rate on money planning?	15
A	Do you plan how you will use current income?	3
B	Do you plan for saving?	3
C	Are plans A and B made by and agreed to by the family?	3
D	Do you know how to find the cost of credit?	3
E	Do you keep financial records?	3
V	Do you have definite long term plans for	15
A	Education of children?	3
1	Any plans?	2
II	Made by all concerned including children	1

- Homemaking as a Center for Research* (New York: Bureau of Publications Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927)
- Lake Placid Conference on Home Economics* (Lake Placid, N. Y., 1901)
- O'BRIEN, Ruth. "The Consumer Movement in the United States." *Journal of Home Economics*, Vol. 41 (November 1949)
- SCHUPMEYER, C. H. *An Analysis of the Managerial Responsibilities of the Farm Home Maker* (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Dept. of Agriculture, 1929). Mimeographed.
- Some Factors Involved in the Teaching of Home Management in Colleges*. U. S. Office of Education, Misc. 2119, 1938.
- STAAB, Josephine. "Research in Family Economics." *Journal of Home Economics*, Vol. 31, No. 4 (April 1959), pp. 257-260.
- WARNER, Wilma. "Home Management at Lake Placid." *Journal of Home Economics*, Vol. 46, No. 10 (December 1954), pp. 716-718.
- YOST, Edna Frank and Lillian Gilbreth. (New Brunswick, N. J.: Rutgers University, 1949).

TABLE A 1 Caloric Increase in Energy Cost While Performing Household Tasks Above Energy Expended During a State of Rest*

Task	Increase Expressed in Calories Per Hour
Knitting	10.1
Crocheting	8.3
Sewing	9.4
Dressing infant (model)	25.6
Washing floor (simulated)	29.0
Sweeping floor	40.1
Washing towels (rubbed on washboard and wrung by hand)	49.6
Ironing with a five pound iron	24.3
Dishwashing	
Table 25.6 inches high	30.0
Table 39.4 inches high	24.4
Table 53.5 inches high	20.3

* C. F. Langworthy and H. G. Barrett, *Energy Expenditure in Household Tasks*, *The American Journal of Physiology*, Vol. LII (1920).

TABLE A 2 Classification of Household Tasks According to Energy Costs

Household activities may be considered as light, medium, and heavy according to calories used to perform them: light, 1 calorie or less per pound of body weight; medium, 1.5 to 2 calories; heavy, 2 or more.

Light	Medium	Heavy
Dust furniture	Use carpet sweeper	Scrub floors
Dust floor	Use vacuum cleaner	Wax floors with hand
Sweep kitchen floor	Do heavy sweeping	polishing
Wash and dry dishes	Use step stool to reach	Clean cupboards
Prepare meals	into high cupboards	Clean closets
Set and clear table	Wash with mechanical	Hang curtains
Pack lunches	machine	Wash windows
Do hand laundry	Spread clothing on	Lift young children
Sort and sprinkle laundry	low lines	Lift heavy baskets of wet
Sew on machine	Iron	clothes
Go window shopping	Defrost refrigerator	
Shop for food	Polish furniture	
Do light pressing		
Polish silver and metal		

* Based on Mr. Dexter Brown's findings of the *Up Time* Washington Tuberculosis Association and State Board for Vocational Education, Seattle, Washington, and Esther C. Bratton, *Concepts of Energy and Work in Home Management*, *Journal of Home Economics*, Vol. 51, No. 2 (February 1959), p. 103.

B	Improved financial status?	3
1	Home ownership?	1
2	Retirement?	1
3	Other?	1
C	Checking on health of family?	3
1	Physical examination?	2
2	Dental examination?	1
D	Developing family spiritually?	3
1	Church attendance?	2
2	Other?	1
E	Developing family socially?	3
1	Within family group?	1
2	Sharing family life with others?	1
3	Community service?	1
VI	Do you check your plans while carrying them out?	10
A	Have you set up methods for checking progress of plans?	5
1	Time plans	2
2	Financial plans	2
3	Other plans	1
II	Do you make conscious changes in light of	5
1	Immediate goals?	2
2	Resources still available?	2
3	Long term goals?	1
VII	How well do you control plans for materials and goods in the household?	15
A	Do you purchase materials carefully?	10
1	Food	4
2	Equipment	2
3	Furniture	2
4	Clothing	2
II	Do you use materials carefully after you have them?	3
1	Food	1
2	Equipment	2
3	Furniture	1
4	Clothing	1
VIII	Do you evaluate your plans after they are finished?	10
A	Do they usually work out?	5
1	Time plans	2
2	Financial plans	2
3	Other plans	1
II	Do you try to understand why plans that do not work out are unsuccessful?	5

Maximum Score

100

MICROMOTION FILM ANALYSIS

Analysis of a film consists of charting the elements of motions in terms of therbligs. A motion is a very complex activity and to study it requires its break down into simpler elements. These elements must have identical meanings for different workers. The Gilbreths investigated, classified and named these elements calling them by their own name spelled backwards—therbligs. The term *therblig* can be used to classify the motions of fingers, arms, hands or the activity of the body as a whole. In any one situation, however, it must be applied only to one of these, such as arms, and not for example, sometimes to arms and sometimes to fingers.

Each of the 18 therbligs (the Gilbreths recognized only 17) has its special name, symbol, abbreviation and color by which shown on a simo chart. Thus one of the common therbligs, grasp, is indicated either by C or a horseshoe shape indicating a hand open for grasping an object. Some of the symbols are self-explanatory, others need a little interpretation for the uninitiated.¹ The therbligs with their symbols and abbreviations are:



















Abbreviation	Symbol	Name of symbol	Abbreviation	Symbol	Name of symbol
<i>Sh</i>		SEARCH	<i>I</i>		INSPECT
<i>F</i>		FIND	<i>PP</i>		PRE POSITION
<i>SI</i>		SELECT	<i>RL</i>		RELEASE LOAD
<i>G</i>		GRASP	<i>TE</i>		TRANSPORT EMPTY
<i>TL</i>		TRANSPORT LOADED	<i>R</i>		REST FOR OVERCOMING FATIGUE
<i>P</i>		POSITION	<i>UD</i>		UNAVOIDABLE DELAY
<i>A</i>		ASSEMBLE	<i>AD</i>		AVOIDABLE DELAY
<i>U</i>		USE	<i>Pn</i>		PLAN
<i>DA</i>		DISASSEMBLE	<i>H</i>		HOLD

FIGURE A 1 THERBLIGS

TABLE A 3 Energy Consumed During Work of the Homemaker

Typical Calorie Expenditure Per Hour (per Pound) for Various Duties

Activity	Range of Calorie Expenditure	Number of Studies in Range	Typical Calorie Expenditure	How the Typical Calorie Expenditure Was Chosen *
Sleeping	40-45	2	40	Lowest
Awake lying still	47-50	2	47	Lowest
Sitting at rest	42-65	3	60	Middle
Simple work sitting eating reading sewing	57-70	11	67	Typical
Standing relaxed	50-76	5	60	Middle
Dressing and undressing	71-117	3	77	Middle
Ironing	72-110	5	87	Middle
Typing marketing driving automobile washing dishes	81-91	11	91	Typical
Sweeping bare floor walking in home light exercise	100-162	6	103	Typical
Light laundry sorting and piling and sprinkling wash	104-113	5	113	Typical
Mopping and beating	117	1	117	
Window polishing	124	1	124	
Dusting stepping up 7' from floor arm reach and trunk bend	133-139	3	135	Middle
Furniture and metal polishing	140-149	3	149	Typical
Wringing wash by hand taking down wash brushing carpet	159	3	159	
Het's sweeping scouring	163-16	3	16	Typical
Bed making	181	1	181	
Waxing floor with waxer	184	1	184	
Beating carpets polishing floors	191	1	191	
Arm reach and deep knee bend 3' from floor	194	1	194	
Washing by hand on wash board	110-196	11	196	Highest
Gettobing	209	1	209	
Climbing stairs	269	1	269	
Descending stairs	140	1	142	
Climbing stairs with a load	364	1	364	
Descending stairs with a load	23	1	23	

Sta y Cha bol and Ka hleen A Job ston Energy Used How held Act vates Wash ngton
 T he calcs A soc ion Seat le Wash
 Lowv : When Rose and Sherman wer the only two son tes Rose w s chosen in both cases
 M d d The midpnt between the high t and low st figure seemed to be th logical choice
 High t The Germa study w th most recent
 Typic : Two or more identical figures.

LEFT HAND

12.56 sec

AVERAGE COMPOSITE

4.36 sec
REVISED COMPOSITE

RIGHT HAND

12.56 sec

AVERAGE COMPOSITE

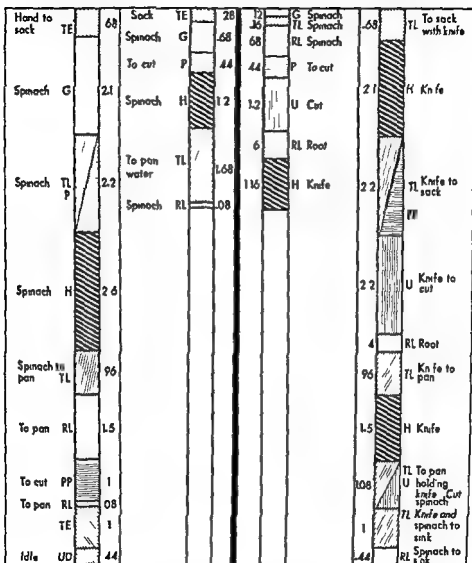


FIGURE A 2 Simo-Chart Showing Comparison of Right and Left Hands in Average Composite and Revised Composite Methods for One Cycle for Cutting Spinach

The work of each active body member is separately charted to scale and the charts are shown in parallel columns. The times of the different columns are plotted exactly so that one knows for example what the left hand is doing while the right is performing a given thing and vice versa. It is usual to chart only the work of the hands but if the feet or other body parts are used in an operation their activity may also be filmed and charted. These parallel charts are called *simo-charts*—meaning *simultaneous motion cycle charts*. An example of a *simo chart* is given in Figure A 2.

TABLE A-4 Life Expectancy and Deaths Per Thousand in the U S
(Commissioners Tables for 1941 and 1958)

Age	1941 Table		1958 Table	
	Average Number of Years of Life Remaining	Number Dying Per Thousand Alive at Start of Year of Age	Average Number of Years of Life Remaining	Number Dying Per Thousand Alive at Start of Year of Age
10	55.5	1.97	59.6	1.21
25	42.1	2.88	45.8	1.93
50	21.4	12.32	23.6	8.32
60	14.5	26.59	16.1	20.34
70	9.0	59.30	10.1	49.79

TABLE A-5 Total Savings Resulting from the Investment of \$100 a Year at Varying Rates of Interest Compounded Annually*

Years of Saving	Rate of Interest					
	1%	2%	3%	4%	5%	6%
5	\$ 510	\$ 520	\$ 531	\$ 542	\$ 553	\$ 564
10	1016	1095	1146	1201	1258	1318
15	1610	1729	1860	2002	2158	2328
20	2202	2430	2687	2978	3307	3679
25	2824	3203	3616	4165	4773	5487
30	3478	4057	4758	5608	6444	7906

The following formula³ may be used to figure the dollar cost more accurately. The symbols have the same meanings as in the constant ratio formula above.

$$C = \frac{rA(n+1)}{2p}$$

$$r = .05 \times 12 = .36$$

$$C = \frac{0.36 \times 120 \times 13}{2 \times 12} = \frac{56160}{24} = \$2340$$

³ Adapted from *Arch W. Toelst up Commercial Principles of Finance*, 2d ed. (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1957) p. 385.

HOW TO TELL WHAT YOU PAY FOR CREDIT

Several different formulas for figuring true annual interest rates are available. Any one of the methods can be used to compare finance charges so long as the same formula is applied to each credit transaction. One of the most frequently used is the constant ratio method. It is particularly useful for installment contracts which run for unusual periods such as 11 months, 23 months or 31 months.

The formula is written as follows:

$$r = \frac{2pC}{A(n+1)} \quad \text{Where}$$

r = the annual interest rate

p = number of equal installment payments in one year exclusive of the downpayment

C = the interest or finance charge in dollars

A = the amount borrowed

n = number of equal installment payments in the whole contract period exclusive of the downpayment

The use of the formula is illustrated by the following example. Mr. Smith buys an auto for \$2500 paying \$800 down. The dealer charges him \$100 for insurance and computes the finance charge at a discount rate of 6 per cent a year. Mr. Smith agrees to pay the amount owed in 15 equal monthly payments.

In this example

$$p = 12$$

$$A = \$1800 \quad (\$2500 - \$800 + \$100)$$

$$C = \$135 \quad (1800 \times 7\frac{1}{4}\%) \text{ Note: a discount rate of } 6\% \text{ for 12 months means an equivalent discount rate of } 1\frac{1}{4} \text{ times that much for 15 months}$$

$$n = 15$$

Putting these terms into the formula

$$r = \frac{2 \times 12 \times \$135}{\$1800 (15 + 1)}$$

$$= \frac{\$3240}{\$28800}$$

$$= 11.3\%$$

The constant ratio method gives approximate rather than exact results. It tends to overstate the actual rate somewhat.

If the interest rate is expressed as a certain rate per month, 3 per cent for example, the true interest rate is 36 per cent for 12 months. However, on a \$120 loan repaid in 12 equal installments, the borrower will not pay \$43.20 interest; he will pay \$23.40 because the interest is figured on the balance of the loan as each installment is paid. The dollar cost can be roughly estimated at \$21.60 since the borrower averaged use of one-half the amount of the loan for the entire year.

Small Loan Rates, September 1960

Principal Balance (unless otherwise noted)

Montana	\$20 a year per \$100 to \$300 \$16 to \$500 \$12 to \$1 000 charged on initial balance for full contract period special rate for loans up to \$90
Nebraska	3% to \$150 2½% to \$300 ¾% to \$3 000
Nevada	9% a year to \$1 000 8% to \$2,500 plus monthly fee of 1¢ per \$1 to \$200 and ½¢ to \$400 all charged on initial balance for full contract period
New Hampshire	2% fees in advance \$1 on loans to \$50 \$2 on loans to \$300
New Jersey	2½% to \$300 ½% to \$500
New Mexico	8½% to \$150 3% to \$300 1% to \$1 000 10% a year 1 year after maturity and in certain other cases
New York	2½% to \$100 2% to \$300 ¾% to \$800
*North Carolina	Loan agency law permits industrial loan agencies to charge the same fees and interest that may lawfully be charged by industrial banks on installment loans which are a discount of 6% a year plus extra fees
North Dakota	2½% to \$750 2% to \$1,000 1¾% to \$750 1½% to \$1 000
Ohio	3% to \$150 2% to \$300 ¾% to \$1 000
Oklahoma	10% per year plus 5% initial charge monthly 2% (maximum \$2) to \$300
Oregon	3% to \$300 2% to \$500 1% to \$1,500
Pennsylvania	3% to \$150 2% to \$300 1% to \$600 6% a year after 24 months
Rhode Island	3% to \$300
South Carolina	Law inadequate
South Dakota	3% to \$300 ¾% to \$2,000 \$9 minimum 8% a year 6 months after maturity
*Tennessee	Law is not effective to authorize legitimate lending of small sums or to prevent illegal lending at high rates
*Texas	No small loan law is such Existing statutes ineffective
Utah	3% to \$300 1% to \$600
Vermont	2½% to \$125 2¼% to \$300 1% to \$600
Virginia	2½% to \$300 1½% to \$600 6% a year after 23 months and in certain other cases
Washington	3% to \$300 1½% to \$500 1% to \$1 000 \$1 minimum
West Virginia	3½% to \$150 2½% to \$300
Wisconsin	2½% to \$100 2% to \$300 1% to \$300
Wyoming	3½% to \$150 2½% to \$300 1% to \$1 000 plus \$1 fee on loans of \$50 or less \$1 recording fee

WORK PLAN FOR MONDAYS FOOD PREPARATION

<i>Waitress</i> (special instructions)	<i>Breakfast</i>	<i>Cook</i>
Set up teacart by hostess for pouring beverage and making toast	Orange Juice Shredded Wheat with Milk Whole Wheat Toast Apple Butter Hot Chocolate	Use 11 small oranges per person Put oranges in refrigerator night before Made by hostess at table Use 1½ quarts milk
	<i>Lunch</i>	
Place guest at right of hostess	(1 guest) Tomato Soup Egg Salad Sandwiches on W W Toast Fruit Cup Milk	Use 3 slices bread per person Cook enough eggs for Tuesday lunch at same time Use 2 bananas 1 grapefruit 1 large orange and enough apples to make 9 large servings
Fruit cup on lower shelf of teacart	<i>Dinner</i>	
Take cottage pudding out of oven at 6:30 Bring sauce in pitcher to serve at table	Barbecued Spareribs Baked Potatoes Cole Slaw Cottage Pudding with Lemon Sauce Coffee	Recipe _____ cookbook p _____ 1½ times recipe Large servings because no other vegetable Finish baking during meal serve hot Recipe for pudding and sauce _____ cookbook page _____

<i>Name of Food</i>	<i>List Price</i>	<i>Amount on Hand</i>	<i>Cost of Amount on Hand</i>	<i>Name of Food</i>	<i>Unit Price</i>	<i>Amount on Hand</i>	<i>Cost of Amount on Hand</i>
Apples				Jam			
Apricots							
Baking powder							
Bananas							
Beans				Jelly			
Breakfast cereals							

Scoring the Scale

Each of the 20 italicized items is first rated and then weighted as indicated by the number in the left hand column. Thus if a student is rated as "Meets what is expected of a junior or senior in home economics" (score of 2) on Leadership which has a weight of 3, her weighted score on that point would be 6 (2×3). To aid in uniformity in scoring, each item that is separately scored is briefly explained. In no case is the rater likely to find on the rating scale an exact description of the situation she is analyzing. However, a low rating is given when the situation being rated fails to qualify on all the points rated as high. A middle rating may indicate mediocrity throughout or a combination of good and poor characteristics. A good rating should not be interpreted as perfection; rather, this rating is given if most of the desired qualities are present.

Explanation of Points Rated

LEADERSHIP

- Foresees need for leadership
- Able to guide group at opportune time
- Able to integrate all members of a group
- Makes plans ahead of time so other workers can depend on them
- Instills confidence with co-workers
- Gives praise when it is due
- Is considerate of others' time and energy
- Inspires others by her words, actions, and her own personality

COOPERATION

- Works well with others without expecting recognition
- Carries full share of load

CONTRIBUTION TO THE GROUP

- Exhibits enthusiasm for group activities
- Makes things pleasant with sense of humor
- Has a spirit of being with and one of the group
- Is willing to give the group the benefit of past experiences
- Uses special talents for enjoyment of group

PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT

- Interests become more varied and related to others. They are continually being developed through relationships with others
- Strives to keep abreast of the times in many ways (nutrition standards, new processes in home care and food preparation, current affairs)

TABLE A 7 Rating Scale for Home Management Residence Course

Weight to	Appraisal of Management	Falls Below Expectation of a Senior Home Economics (score 1)	Meets Expectation of a Senior Home Economics (score 2)	Slightly Above Expectation of a Senior Home Economics (score 3)	Much Above Expectation of a Senior Home Economics (score 4)	Weighted Score
A Goals, values and standards						
I Group relationships						
3	a Leadership		X			6
3	b Cooperation			X		3
3	c Contribution to the group			X		9
II Personal development						
a Managerial characteristics						
2	(1) Observation			X		6
	(2) Initiative		X			4
	(3) Responsibility				X	8
4	b Acceptance of differences			X		6
2	c Other		X			4
3 Standards (conventional and flexible)						
3	a Food and nutrition			X		9
3	b Care of house and run room				X	12
3	c Aesthetic standards		X			6
3	d Social usage		X			6
II The managerial process						
I Planning						
4	a Time and energy			X		12
2	b Money		X			4
	c Materials			X		6
II Controlling the plan in action						
4	a Time and energy			X		12
2	b Money		X			4
2	c Materials				X	8
3	d Supervision			X		9
4	3 Evaluation		X			8
Total						148

STANDARDS FOR CARE OF HOUSE AND OWN ROOM

- Keeps the house at a comfortable level of cleanliness and order in relation to the needs of the group
- Keeps her own room orderly for her own work and for those who help maintain her room
- Knows and utilizes effective methods of care of household materials

AESTHETIC STANDARDS

- Makes the house a more pleasant place to live in because of her efforts in arranging table center pieces and centers of interest
- Exhibits appreciation of neatness and orderliness in condition of the house and in own dress
- Uses art standards for judging appropriateness of decorative art objects in own room
- Uses appropriate combinations of articles and materials such as table linen, dishes, and flowers

STANDARDS OF SOCIAL USAGE

- Is at ease under trying circumstances
- Is a considerate hostess
- Takes a fair share in conversing with group members and guests
- Makes guests feel at home and welcome
- Knows and follows conventional social customs
- Is interested in and accepts a wide variety of foods

PLANNING USE OF TIME AND ENERGY

- Accepts principle of balance in use of time
- Considers goals in making plans
- Neither too many nor too few things included
- Important activities included
- Has realization of amounts of time required for specific tasks
- Elasticity allowed
- Plans to use work simplification
- Plans well organized
- Considers abilities and limitations of self and others

PLANNING USE OF MONEY

- Contributes ideas toward making group budget
- Has realistic knowledge of food costs

- Benefits from wise use of leisure time—participating in group activities reading and selective attention to television and radio
- Has a desire to improve herself
- Attempts to reach goals set up High degree of satisfaction in accomplishment

ACCEPTANCE OF DIFFERENCES

- Willing that others have ideas different from her own
- Is open minded and constantly on the alert to try ideas of others and gives credit to them for their contributions
- Sees the needs of different persons
- Sees person's possibilities and limitations and if possible allows work to them accordingly
- Recognizes differences in viewpoints values and abilities in others but maintains her own integrity keeps the differences on impersonal plane without personal animosity arising

OBSERVATION

- Has over all view as well as keenness for detail
- Sees all important needs and problems
- Alert to social situations and people's feelings as well as to physical and concrete things and conditions
- Keen sensitivity to problems of self and group

INITIATIVE

- Consistently a self starter
- Prompt in getting started

RESPONSIBILITY

- Recognizes personal obligation to group
- Consistently carries a plan through to end without sacrificing standards.

STANDARDS FOR FOOD AND NUTRITION

- Able to plan appetizing food that fulfills the basic nutritional needs
- Eats a variety of food that is nutritionally adequate
- Is able to prepare food according to aesthetic and nutritional standards
- Serves appetizing and attractive food at appropriate temperatures
- Utilizes all food wisely

ABILITY TO EVALUATE

Sees the value of analyzing past experiences.

Analyzes behavior or work done and judges the results clearly in an objective manner

Honest in estimate of self

Composite Rating

To obtain a composite or group rating add individual weighted scores on each subpoint and on the total score (Table A7). Then divide the sum of each total by the number of ratings used to obtain a separate composite rating on each part and on the whole.

GUIDES FOR INTERPRETING OBSERVATIONS IN HOMES

by

ELLA M. CUSHMAN

New York State College of Home Economics
at Cornell University

The *objective score* will include the number of significant observations made in each column.

The *subjective score* will be based upon the importance and validity of the observations made and the relationship of all items to the first column.

I Goals and Values

End goals or values may be defined as the long range goals toward which a family strives in order to achieve the greatest lasting satisfaction. *Evidences of end goals or values* are what you saw or heard that made you think these were end goals.

Means goals may be defined as short range goals set by a family or an individual to bring them nearer the end goals.

EXAMPLE

Possible End Goals or Values
A desire for happy family relations

End Goal (what you saw or heard that made you think this an end goal)

I noticed that the children were playing happily together and sharing their toys.
Others.

Means Goals Set to Achieve the End Goal (what they did to help achieve it)

Mrs. J. said that she and Mr. J. with the children's help had organized a play center for each child.
Others.

Plans menus suitable to food allowance

Plans entertainment within budget allowance

PLANNING USE OF MATERIALS (Food Household Textiles Equipment Furnishings Flowers Cleaning Materials Fuel and so Forth)

Plans amounts of materials to be used in relation to amounts needed for size of group and particular situation

Weights saving of materials against time and energy required for such saving

Weights saving of materials against development of human values such as comfortable group living

CONTROLLING PLAN IN ACTION (Time and Energy)

Completes activities on time without hurry or stress

Is able to concentrate on work in hand

Practices work simplification

Develops little or no fatigue

Consciously checks progress of work as plan is carried out

Makes adjustments easily if they are necessary

CONTROLLING PLAN IN ACTION (Money)

Checks food expenditures daily against budget allowance

Checks petty cash against amounts spent

Is careful in writing checks and keeping receipts

Is accurate in keeping of books

Uses ingenuity in expenditure of money for flowers

CONTROLLING PLAN IN ACTION (Materials)

Practices effective methods of storing food and other materials

Takes proper care of equipment furnishings and household textiles

Avoids waste of utilities such as water heat and electricity

Makes effective adjustments in utilizing materials if necessary

SUPERVISION AS ASPECT OF CONTROLLING PLAN IN ACTION

Plans are ready in time to be helpful

Gives clear concise directions

Takes notice of work while in progress or is available to workers if needed

Secures results satisfactory in relation to abilities of workers

Is tactful

Is appreciative of efforts made and work done

IV Family Management

Select one important action that the _____ family took and outline the following phases of home management as illustrated below

EXAMPLE

Action Taken (only one)	Family Values and Goals— Why Did They Do It?	Resources Used Within and Outside the Individual	What Choices Were Available? (check the household made)	Check	Why Did They Make That Choice?
Mrs. B started a catering business	To earn money to make them independent Others	Ability to cook well Produce from their farm— fresh, canned and frozen Ability to plan Mr. B. to wait on tables Some purchased food Others	a To buy a home freezer OR b to spend the money to finish off the utility room OR c Others	X	To preserve the food from their farm so they could use it in their catering business and thereby increase their income Others

AUDIO VISUAL AIDS

The list of films and filmstrips given below is by no means exhaustive. In most cases they are available on loan either free or for a small handling charge. The cost of purchase is given only for those which are not otherwise available. The address of each source is given only with the first film listed from that source.

GENERAL HOME MANAGEMENT

American Portrait 25 minutes color

Features the improvements made in our way of life during the past century

Audience college or adult

Distributed by Institute of Life Insurance
488 Madison Avenue
New York 22 New York

The Owl and Fred Jones 14 minutes color

Imaginative cartoon on habits good and bad and how they can be changed. The habit of over-eating is used as an example.

Audience high school, college or adult

Produced by Bureau of Public Health of
Equitable Life Assurance Society of the U. S.
Distributed by Modern Talking Picture Service, Inc.
3 East 54th Street
New York 22 N. Y.

II Family Resources

Resources used by home managers may be found within and outside the individual. They may be classified as human and material.

Available Resources

Within the individual knowledge abilities skills energy and so forth

Outside the individual: money and the goods and services that money will buy other persons organizations and so forth

In Mrs _____'s home look for evidences of resources that the family has used to achieve what seem to be important to them

EXAMPLE

Example	Revised	Revised	Revised
Eds Achieved by Use of Resources	Resources Used to Achieve This	Resources Used to Achieve This	Ends of the Use of This Resource to Achieve the Desired
1 The Bs have a better house than they could have afforded to buy or hire built	Perseverance Understanding of building Others	Timber from their land Others	Their house built by themselves from boards which they received in exchange for their timber Others
2 Mrs J wanted to simplify her kitchen work	Ingenuity Dexterity	Scrap wood Carpentry tools Unit	A vertical file which Mrs J made for her dish cupboard

III Choice Making

List the possibilities for choice making by the _____ family. Check the possibility which was finally decided upon. Give reasons for this choice in terms of family values. If the choice seemed to be successful in terms of satisfaction indicate evidence. If you thought it unsuccessful indicate possible reasons.

EXAMPLE

Po Choice mak g	Ch b	R s	f r Choice	If Chos W s S s f l Why?	If Chance W s Not S r s s f l Why?
I a Should they live in a single room in the city			They would be near the house so they could work on it after their day s work was	The house was finished sooner than it otherwise might have been	
OR				Others	
B buy a cabin for \$300 and live next to their house un til it is ready to move into	X		done This would save time		
OR			Others		
c others					

Work Simplification Demonstrated by a One Handed Mother in Bathing a Baby 12 minutes color

University of Connecticut

Work Simplification Demonstrated by a Wheel Chair Mother in Preparing a Formula 12 minutes color

University of Connecticut

Take It Easy

Distributed by American Heart Association
44 East 23rd Street
New York New York

For rent or sale

In Relation to Work Space

Beltsville Energy Saving Kitchen Workroom (Filmstrip #C 58)
color with lecture notes 35 frames

Distributed by Photo Lab Inc
382½ Georgia Avenue N W
Washington 11 D C

Purchase price \$6 00

Well Planned Home Storage 11 minutes color

Distributed by Bureau of Audio-Visual Instruction
University of Wisconsin
1312 W Johnson Street
Madison 6 Wisconsin

Within Your Reach 15 minutes black and white silent (1947)

Cornell University Extension Service
Ithaca New York

MONEY MANAGEMENT AND FAMILY SECURITY

Banks and Credit 10 minutes black and white (1948)

Explains checks and checking accounts credit notes interest loans bonds securities and stock

Audience junior high senior high college

Distributed by Coronet Instructional Films
65 East South Water Street
Chicago 1 Ill

Changing American Market The 15 minutes color Transfilm 1954

Shows changes in American market since 1917 Describes changes in buying habits

Audience high school college adult

Distributed by Fortune Films
Rockefeller Center
New York 20 New York

Production 3118 30 minutes color

Film on the principles of communication with many implications for supervision

Audience high school college adult

Produced by Wilding Picture Productions Inc
Chicago Ill

For the National Project on Agricultural Communication

Distribution Available through most state Cooperative Extension offices

WORK SIMPLIFICATION

General

The Easier Way 12 minutes black and white (1947)

Illustrates that method is more important than the individual's speed in determining output

Audience high school college adult

Produced by General Motors Corporation Department of Public
Relations

Film Distribution Section

3044 West Grand Boulevard Detroit 2 Mich

The Flow Process Chart and How to Use it 15 minutes color (1949)

Semi-animated cartoon clearly indicating methods of procedure in charting both product and man

Produced by United States Army

Audience college adult

Distributed by The Library of Congress

Also available through

Audio Visual Center

University of Connecticut

Storrs Connecticut

For Handicapped Homemakers

An Approach to Work Simplification for Handicapped Homemakers 18 minutes color

Stresses analyzing the task eliminating unnecessary steps combining operations and questioning possibility of changes in method equipment order of work or finished product

Audience college or adult

Produced by the School of Home Economics the University of Connecticut

Distributed through Audio-Visual Center University of Conn

Principles of Motion Economy Illustrated by Handicapped Homemakers 18 minutes color

Physically handicapped women illustrate sixteen principles of motion economy commonly used in simplifying household tasks grouped under arrangement of workplace selection of tools and efficient use of body

Produced by The School of Home Economics University of Connecticut

Index

- Abilities as resources 124 127
- Abington F S 196
- Abruzzi A 24n 283n
- Accidents fatigue and 260 263
- Accounts for money management 383 384
 - 391 392 504
- Adams G 537n
- Adjustment goals and 31 34
- Adler Felix 30
- Administrative skill 90
- Adult education 511 512
- Adviser faculty 500 509 510
- Agan T 167
- Age
 - evaluation of management and 115
 - illness and 429
 - income and 156 159
 - life cycle and 150 (See also Family life cycle)
 - residence and 163
 - wife's median and life cycle 154
- Aged (See Retirement)
- Agricultural Research Service 541 540
- Allen F III
- Allocation of funds 164 166
- Allowance system 165 166
- Alternate use of resources 129 141 143
- Alternatives in decision making 65 68
- American Heart Association 278
- American Home Economics Association
 - 530 532 533 536 540
- American Medical Association health care
 - view of 437
- American standard of living 45 46
- Amidon II 430n 437n
- Amidon E 511n 512n 532
- Amortization home 411 415
- Amortized mortgages 418 420
- Anderson II I 515n
- Anderson E S 205n
- Andrews B 527 535
- Appell C T 109n
- Appreciations expanding of 144
- Archbold L II 431n
- Aristotle 521
- Attitudes
 - as resources 124
 - toward group differences 34 3
 - toward money 36b
 - toward time management 25 217 218 219
 - toward work simplification 281
- Audio visual aids 569 572
- Automobile 421 428
 - budget significance of 421 422
 - costs of 402 408
 - expenditures actual and estimated for 348 351 354 355 357 359
- Back W B 28n
- Balance sheets 392 393 490
- Balancing resources 144 146
 - of time 218 219
- Baldwin K 146 525n 527n
- Bank
 - credit 485 487 489
 - mortgages 419
 - savings and 465
- Banking procedures budget and 389
- Barnes R M 231n 290n 551n
- Barrett II G 248 251 539 549
- Barrie J M 32
- Bartley S H 226n 246 257n 260n 261n 539
- Barton S G 159n
- Baruch B 182
- Bayton J A 80n
- Bazzani J 60
- Becker H S 72
- Bedmaking research in 289
- Beecher Catharine 525 527

Dollars for Health Filmstrip

Emphasizes need for general health insurance major catastrophe and accident insurance

Audience high school college

Distributed by Institute of Life Insurance

Littlest Giant The 12 minutes color

Presents the consumer as the littlest but the mightiest giant of all stresses credit

Audience high school college adult

Distributed by Modern Talking Pictures /

New Look at Budgeting A Filmstrip 88 frames 11 22 minutes

Distributed by Money Management Institute of
Household Finance Corporation
Prudential Plaza
Chicago 1 Illinois

Sharing Economic Risks 10 minutes black and white

Explanation of the insurance principle in meeting economic risks

Distributed by Coronet Films

What Makes Us Tick 12 minutes color

Cartoon on New York Stock Exchange

Audience high school college

Distributed by Modern Talking Pictures

Your Money's Worth in Shopping Filmstrip 59 frames 16-20 minutes

Distributed by Household Finance Corporation

HOUSING*Harvey Dilemma* #1219 15 20 minutes, color

Cartoon on savings, loans for home buying

Distributed by Modern Talking Pictures

Homes for a Growing America #1160 15 minutes color

Homes made by assembly line techniques.

Distributed by Modern Talking Pictures

Place in the Sun A 11 minutes.

Cartoon on need for title insurance

Distributed by American Title Association
1725 Eye St. N W
Washington D C.

Charts (continued)

- operation 281 285
- pathway or flow 286 287 288
- personal development check list 58
- process 283 284 285 320
- progress 113
- simo chart 533
- in work simplification research 283 287

Chase M E 35n

Chase S 78n

Chattle E 110n

Checking

- budget 382 387
 - on the job 103 104
 - in plan control 98 99
 - in technical supervision 101
 - time plans 339
 - of workers results later 104 106
- Checks budget and 382 383 389 390

Children

- death of breadwinner and 446-447
- education of cost of 170 176
- guidance of in plan control 101
- family life cycle and 153 154
- fatigue of women and 260 261
- money training of 366 367
- mothers working and 203 206
- rearing costs of 171 172
- status and role of 194 195
- time management and 160
- vocational adjustment of 176

Chute E. 226n 256n 257n

Cicero 522

City homemaking (See Urban)

City Workers Family Budget 346 359

Clague E 133

Clare E. 511n

Clark F 401n 502n 541

Clarke L H 159n 209n

Classes of change (See Change classes of)

Cleaning research in 289 290

Clerical worker family expenditures 351

Close A 182n

Clothing

- budget planning and 369 370 371 312 401
- expenditures actual and estimated 348 351 354 355 356 357 319

Clymer E 536

Cochrane W W 89n

Cofar E 401n 505n

Cohen J B 454n 460n 463

Coles J V 476

Collateral for loan 477

College home management teaching in (See Teaching)

College education costs of 173 174

Columbia U conference (1977) 531

Commercial banks 485 487

Commercial food products vs homemade 39-40

Committee on the Hygiene of Housing 404 405 406

Communication free 33 34

Community

- demands of on resources 143 145 146
- resources 124
- responsibility 31 36
- service of aged 182
- working lives adjustment and 206 207

Composition of family resource use and 200 200

Compromise in resolving conflict 75 76 77 78

Conferences in home management 525 531 534

Conflict

- group rapport and 34
- in decision making 75 79

Conformity standards and 38 39 40 43

Connecticut U conferences on handicapped 533

Conservation 130 132

Constant ratio method 554 555

Consumer

- credit 415 481 484 489 490 554 555
- constant ratio method of calculating 5 4 515
- finances 414
- movement 131 136 540
- research 541 542

Consumption levels 335 336 343 360

Contracting family stage 153 186

energy demands and 162

financial recovery period and 1 6 177

launching period of 116

retirement or aging period 177 186 (See also Retirement)

time management and 159 160 161

Controlling plan in action 97 108 117

for energy management 263 272

evaluation of 114 (See also Evaluating)

in management process 4 5 90

for material goods 134 137

money management and 380 390

phases of 97 99

rating of 566

success of 99

supervision and 100 108

time management and 25 239

Conventional standards 38 39 40 43 45 46 49 52

Conversion method of resolving conflict 75 77 78

- Beer H M 154n 157
 Beginning family stage 153 163 169 186
 budget and 367 368
 energy demands of 169
 financial problems of 163 169
 time management and 159
 Bell C S 89n
 Belval C 280n
 Bendix R 199n 193
 Benne A D 23n
 Beresford J C 154n 157
 Berger C A 293n
 Bernstein S 11n 71n
 Beyer G H 99n
 Bible influence 520
 Bigelow H F 150n 152 153
 Biological time 216
 Black Max 109n
 Blair E N 42 218
 Bloom C E 293n
 Bloomfield D 218n
 Blue Cross and Blue Shield 435
 Body mechanics energy and 263 270
 position for relaxation 233
 research in 539
 Boggs M M 143n
 Boissonnade P B 523n
 Boll E S 193 194
 Bonde R L 163n 535
 Bonds investment in 465 474
 Books development of home manage-
 ment and 534 536
 Boredom fatigue 256 271 272
 Boren M A W 516n
 Borrowing (See Credit)
 Bosard J H S 193 194 196
 Boulding W E 70n
 Bousfield P 217
 Bradford L A 90n 528n
 Brameld T 78n
 Brande D 217
 Bratton C A 63n 389n
 Bratton E C 88 91n 93n 247 251 253n
 254 264 266n 268 539 540 549n
 Breadwinners death family security and
 446 447
 insurance and 452 548
 investments and 46
 Breckinridge S 535
 Brei M S 207n 208n
 Brewster A W 438n
 Britton V 80n 165n 166 538
 Bross I D J 70 72
 Brosnar J L C 160
 Brown Mrs D 549n
 Brown M W 7n
 Brown R R 106n
 Brownlee A 23n
 Brozek J M 263n 311
 Bruhn 218
 Buck P 54
 Budgets 363 382 502 504 (See also Money
 management)
 accounts and records for 383 387 391
 399
 advantages of 364
 annual for family of four San Fran-
 cisco 355
 City Workers Family Budget 343 346
 358 360
 completeness of 367 368
 Greek thought on 521 522
 limitations of 364
 minimum adequate 343 346
 for retired couple 358
 significance of 364 367
 steps in making 368 382
 Bull M 542
 Burk M C 40n
 Burlingame R 46n
 Burt II E 231n 262 268n 312n
 Business trends 381 471-473

 Caloric increase in energy cost 549
 Calorimeter 248
 Campbell H 527
 Campbell P 44n 406n 433n
 Canon H 215 533
 Capitalism rise of 523
 Car ownership (See Automobile)
 Carey E G 330n
 Carroll M S 202n 204
 Cash credit (See Loans)
 Cash reserves (See Savings)
 Cato 592
 Cavan R S 185
 Central American values 23 24
 Change
 classes of in work simplification 303 321
 decision making and 83 84
 of goals 27
 of habits 83 84
 management's relation to 6 8
 in resident course 499 501
 in standards 39 40
 Changing Times 467 471
 Chapans A R E 269n
 Charge accounts 476-477 478 479 480
 481
 Charts
 for evaluation of daily tasks 56
 for evaluation of time 240 243
 multi man 285 286

- Dublin L I 171 172n 429 434n 447n
 Due J M 12n
 Durnin J V G A 248n 253
 Duvall E M 511
 Dynamogenic effect 268
- Easson L 479n 480n
 Eastwood W 479n
 Eberman F 22
Economic Problems of the Family 535
 Economic risks 445 449
Economics of the Household 535
Economics of Household Production 535
 Education
 costs of 172 175
 as goal in planning 92
 in home management IV (See also Teaching)
 income and 199
 management evaluation and level of 115
 material goods control and 136 147
 working wife's 203
- Eells K 192n
 Efficiency 277 529
 Elasticity periods in time planning 236 237
 Ellis M J 335n 336n
 Elton C A 522n
 Emergencies
 budget and 380
 credit 489
 family security and 446
 Emerson H 529
 Employment of wife gainful 202 207 209 377 (See also Working wives)
 factors affecting 202 203
 effects of 203 207
 effects on real income 203 204
 effects on time usage 204 205 220 221
 Emulation standard of living and 46 47
 Endowment insurance 454 455
 Energy management 247 276 (See also Work simplification)
 body mechanics and 263 270
 caloric increase in 549
 changed concepts of 247 254
 conservation of material goods and 131 132
 consumption in work 550
 controlling plan in 263 272
 costs in 248 254
 evaluating 272
 fatigue and 254 263 270 272
 handicapped and 276
 household task classification and 549
 life cycle and 161 162
 limit of as resource 127
 planning and 263
 rating of 565 566
 research 248 254 539 549 550
 summary of 273
 unsettled questions in 253 254
 Energizing 98
 Engbretson W III 24n
 Epstein L A 184n
 Ethical values 22 23 26
 Evaluation 109 115
 by faculty adviser 509 510
 in energy management 272
 importance of 109 110
 management's definition and 4 5
 in management process 90 109 113
 in material goods management 137 139
 in money management 390 395
 of management process 113 115
 rating ability in 367
 resident course 507 510
 self evaluation techniques of 111 113
 in time plans 239 241
 types of 110 111
- Everett H 290 306n 500n
 Expanding family stage 153 186
 energy demands of 162
 financial problems of 140 176
 education 172 176
 time management and 159 160
 Expenditures (See also Budgets Money management)
 automobile 422 428
 consumption value and 335 336
 cutting 318 380
 effect of size of income on 349 356
 farm urban differences in 207 208
 food 348 351 354 503 506 558 561
 (See also Food)
 home ownership 408-417
 housing and operation 348 351 354
 income and balancing of 375 380
 insurance 348 353 458-459
 life cycle and 356 358
 medical 348 351 354 357 409 438
 patterns of 348 350 351 353 354 357
 recreation 348 351 354 357
 suburban 209
 transportation 348 351 354 356 357 422
 working wife and 203 204
 Experience
 in decision making provision of 83
 homemakers teaching and 513 514
 managerial teaching and 504 507
 shared rapport and 32 III

- Coon B 311n 51ⁿ
 Cooperative Extension Service 34ⁿ 43
 Cornell U conference (1950) 53
 Cosmopolitan standard of living 53
 Cost of living 534
 Costs (See also Budgets Expenditures
 Money management)
 estimates budget and 3 23 5
 Council family 2, 115 117
 Covers resources 173
 Cowles M L 101n 20ⁿ 11n 20ⁿ 30ⁿ
 316n 53ⁿ
 Cox J W 311
 Crandall F W 8n 81n 63
 Creativity
 aged activities and 181 18ⁿ
 in work 219 780
 Credit 475 490
 attitudes toward 4 34 8
 availability of 4 74 8
 business view of 475-476
 cards 479
 cash 476 4 8 481-487 (See also Loans)
 costs of 480-484 554 555
 emergencies 489
 for home purchase 408 415
 increasing income by 374 375 377
 information for 480-489
 kinds of 478
 new developments in 478 480
 precautions in 488 489
 reasons for using 478 477
 retail 475 481 484 489 490
 revolving 478 479
 safe limits for 489
 sources of 484-487
 teen age 479 480
 unions 485 486 487
 Crises family socioeconomic status and
 197 198
 Criticism checking and 104 106
 Croxfield C 13ⁿ
 Cuber J F 191n
 Culture
 balancing resources and 146
 time view and 216
 values and 25 24
 Cunningham B V 26n
 Cushman E 513 535 567
 Customs decision making and 83 84
 Cyclegraph 281 282
 Dean J P 411n
 Death of breastwinner widows and 614
 617 414
 Deaths per thousand 3 7
 Defect
 bug's evaluation and 375
 cost and 4 8
 Decision making 45 61 64
 ask in 8ⁿ 85
 attitudes in 6 64
 of faculty of 65
 factors affecting 7 3
 as field of study 4
 group vs individual 3 9
 relative quality of 7 3
 guide for 54
 information and 15 69
 interrelatedness in 75 174
 knowledge and 19 69 9
 leadership of group and 9
 in management 45 16 1 91 9ⁿ
 mathematics statistics and 69 70
 method of 65 69
 research in 28ⁿ 334
 role of 61 64
 self-perpetuating nature of 72
 summary of 85 86
 time perspectives in 73
 Depreciation
 car 475
 of goods 394
 of home 403 413
 Descriptive values 76
 Development of home management (See
 Home management)
 Diary keeping 112 113
 Dickens D 15n 95 70ⁿ 557
 Dickinson E 218
 Dickinson Z C 520n
 Dietz R P 201n 20ⁿ 221n 22ⁿ 539
 Differences
 group decision making and 71
 rapport and 34 35
 Directing in plan control 100 101 102
 105 107
 Disagreement and group decision making
 75 79
 Dishwashing research in 290 29ⁿ 293
 Dissonance in decision making 89
 Diurnal rhythms 226
 Division of Family Economics-Home Man-
 agement 540
 Dole system 165
 Dominance in resolving conflict 75 76 78
 Donaldson M R 467 469n 487
 Dorsey J M 98 100n 156 158n 312 376
 555

- Income (continued)
 patterns of use of 347 360
 general 347 349
 inter city differences 358 360
 life cycle and 356 358
 occupation and 358
 size of income effect on 349 356
 profiles of 158 376
 psychic 332 334
 real 332 334 339
 sources of 332 334
 retirement 177 183 184 447 448 449
 457
 size of 199 200 349 356
 socio economic status and 192 199
 standard of living and 199
 total 334
 types 332
 urban farm differences in 207 208
 working wives and 202 204
- Individual
 goals 30 31
 evaluation 111 115
 vs. group decisions 73 75
 resources and attitudes toward 129 132
 standards 42 43 47 53
- Information decision making and 15 69
 70
- Installment buying 475 478 480 481 (*See*
also Credit)
- Institutions for aged 185
- Institute of Physical Medicine and Re
 habilitation 278 533
- Instrumental values 25 26
- Insurance
 advantages of 450
 agent choosing of 459 460
 car 423 494-425
 case study of 460-463
 disadvantages of 451
 endowment 454
 expenditures actual and estimated 348
 353 355 359
 FHA loan 418 419
 family income policy 454
 family maintenance policy 456
 family policy 456
 health 435-438
 life 451-454 456 459-463
 limited payment life 453
 modified life 456
 mortgages and 420
 options 456 457
 planning estate of 459 463
 security and 449 463
 selling methods of 451 452
 straight life 453
 term 452-453
 types of 451 459
- Intangible resources 123
- Integration in group conflict 75 77 79
- Intellectual ability material goods and
 140
- Intellectual activities time for 140 224
- Interest credit 481-484 485
 computation of 554 555
 home loan 410 412 416 417
 statutory rates of 556 557
- Interest general
 arousal of in work simplification 279
 981
 fatigue and 271 279
- Interests
 balance of 144 145
 cultural 146
 vs resources 124
- Inventories
 for budget evaluation 394
 food cost and 558 560
 of material goods 137
- Investments 463 474
 advantages and disadvantages of 465
 466
 business cycles and 471-473
 clubs for 466 467
 in government securities 468
 home as 336 338 417
 long term 464 465
 in mutual companies 467
 principles of sound 469 473
 savings from 552
 selection of 466 468
 size of 473 474
- Ironing boards energy use and 264 265
- Ischomachus 90
- Isolation simple standard and 52 53
- Jacobson E 230n
- Jeger C M 131
- Jeter H 541
- Job
 interest fatigue and 271 272
 training (JIT and JMT) 514 516
- Johnson D M 68n 74n
- Johnson G L 22 69n 90n 528n
- Johnston K A 253n 550n
- Jones E H 141n
- Jordan D F 469n 486n
- Journal of Home Economics* 540
- Judgment material goods control and
 136 137
- Judson J S 530 533n

- Health medical care and 479 479 (See also Medical care)
- Health Insurance Plan (HIP) 431
- Hebrew thought on resources 570
- Heckwelder A 30n
- Heiner M B 700n 703 303 317n 340
- Henle H J 73n
- Hesiod 37n
- Heuer L A 363n
- Hill A D 517n
- Hill R 339
- History of home management 519 546
(See also Home management)
- Hodgell M R 403
- Hoffman H H 4 n
- Hollingshead A B 37n
- Hollis F A 14n
- Holmes H C 703n 704n
- Homans C C 100n
- Home management history and develop-
ment of 519 546 (See also Manage-
ment home)
books and 534 536
conferences and 531 534
early beginnings of 519 536
family economics and 530 531
as field of study 5 6 543
future of 543 545
government agencies and 541 543
home economics movement and 5 43 6
organizations and 540 541
research and 536 540
stages 536 538
summary of 545
teaching in (See Teaching)
work simplification and 538 530
- Home Management 535
- Home Management in Theory and Prac-
tice 515
- Home ownership
advantages of 402
costs of 408-415
money value of 336 338
problems of 407 404
renting vs 401 401
- Homemade products 39 40 336
- Homemakers experience teaching and
513 514
- Honey H 80n 165n 166 538
- Hooks J M 49n
- Hoover E D 432n
- Hoskins L S 476
- Hospital Service Commission 435
- Hospitality as goal 33 36
- Hotchkiss A S 80n 165n 166 538
- House organization teaching and 501 504
- Housing 401 411
a legacy of 401 407
a national crisis of 411 417
future planning and 370 371
expenses actual and estimated (See
314 315 317 318 319 320
mortgage and 411 411
ownership costs of 409 412
payment methods of ownership of 412
411
renting of vs ownership 401 401
sales contracts and 411
use value of 337 334
- Housework
classification of by energy 74 733 519
current questions about energy in 233
234
energy research in 74 233 337
fatigue and (See Fatigue)
leisure time and 703 704
norms for 723 724
rest periods in 231 737
rhythm and 74 769
time management and 719 723 731 234
work units for 704 723
of working wives 70 707
- Hoyt F F 24n 49n 140 146
- Human resources 74 175 147
- Hunter G 94n 135 238
- Hunt M E 144 511
- Hustand
money handling by 163 166
responsibilities status and 195 197
wife decision making 40 82
- Illegal lenders 494 487
- Illness (See Medical care)
- Imbert 762
- Income
age and 156 159
budget and 369 371 373 378 (See also
Budgets)
child rearing costs and 171 177
concepts of 331 339
credit and 477
distribution of 339 343
estimating 373 375
family life cycle and 151 153 356 358
family size and 341 343
free or social 338 339
housing and 402 414 415
insurance and 450 457 458 460-462
investments and 463
irregular and budget 374 375
minimum adequacy of 343 346
occupation and 340 341

- Management home (*continued*)
 process 89 122
 significance of 15 17
 steps in 94 115
 teaching (*See Teaching*)
- Management process 4 6 17 89 115
 applicable to all resources 132 139
 decision making related to 91 92
 difficulties in studying 92 94
 in energy management 263 272
 in families and small groups 115 117
 in money management 362 393
 in time management 232 241
 material goods and 132 139
 steps in 94 115
- Manning H L 374
- Married students teaching of 500 501
 512 515
- Marrow A J 74n
- Margenau H 25n
- Martin L J 180
- Material goods
 budget and 369 370 394
 capitalism rise and 523
 credit and 476-477 478 479 480
 decisions and 128 129 137 139
 depreciation of 394 403 413 423
 as income 332
 life span of 137 138 142 143
 management process and 132 139 566
 resources and 125 127 128
 utility of increasing 144
- Mathematics in decision making 69 72
- Matteson W J 460n
- Mavor W 524n
- May E E 530 533
- Maynard H B 283n 306n 307n
- Mayo E 107n 204n 271
- Mayo L 24
- McCandless B J 38n
- McConnell J L 49n
- McCracken E C 250n 251 253 303 539
- McCreel I 22n
- McCullough H E 303 317n
- McGinnis E 499n
- McKee W W 20
- Medical care 428-438
 compulsory plans of 437 438
 expenditures actual and estimated for
 348 351 354 355 357 358 359
 ways of meeting 433-438
 goal of 428 429
 illness extent and 429 433
 prepayment of 435-438
 preventive 433-434
 problems of 429-433
 voluntary plans of 435-437
- Meeker M 192n
- Mehr R I 457 460
- Memomotion study 281
- Menager of Paris *The* 523
- Mental process management as 4 6 17 90
 92 117
 in budget checking 382 383
- Menu planning 97 504 506 507
- Merchandise credit 470 481 484 489 490
- Mestre 262
- Michigan State conferences (1947) 532
 (1955) 533
- Micromotion film analysis 541 542
- Middle class
 fatigue and 260
 living patterns 193 194
 managerial attitudes of 190 198
- Miller P I 19n
- Miller H G 1 9n
- Minden M B 131n
- Mitchell S I 543
- Mix center 299
- Modern Household* 3
- Mogenson A 218n
- Momentum and energy control 269 270
- Money management 331 361 369 399 400
 444
 accounts and records in 383 387 391
 397 504
 adjusting in 387 390
 audio visual aids for 571 572
 automobile and 421 428
 background for 331 361
 beginning family and 163 169
 budgets and 363 389 (*See also Budgets*)
 checking in 382 387
 child's training in 170 176
 controlling plan in action in 389 390
 decision making in 80 81
 economic security provision of 443 491
 evaluating in 390 391
 expanding family stage and 110 176
 of furnishings home 166 169
 housing and 404-421
 income size and 199 200 349 356 (*See
 also Income*)
 information for 400 444
 medical care and 428 438
 philosophy of 14 15 364 366
 planning step in 363 389
 rating of 35 366
 recovery period of contracting family
 and 176 177
 retirement period of contracting family
 and 183 184
 real income and 334 379
 research in 538

- Judy H 535
Justin M 24
- Kahl J A 45n 195
Kansas State Conference (1941) 532
Katona G 423n 473n 489n
Keats John 138
kenkel W F 81n 191n
Kent D C 206
Kerr Mills Bill 438
Kettunen M 530
Kinder F 498n 505n
King W I 152
Kishler M B 302n 316
Kitchen work and storage areas 298 303
313 318
Klohr M C 237n 536
Kneeland H 314 341
Knight F H 68
Knoll M M 338 534n
Knowledge decision making and 69 70
73
Knowles E 264
Kofranyi apparatus 248 249
Kolmer L 141n 350n
Koos E L 197
Kramer I M 438n
Krutch J W 25n
Kueker E 499n 500 513n
Kyrk H 43 65 192n 343 344 473n 598
555
- Labels control through 135
Lajevski H C 206n
Lake Placid Conferences 525 526 527
Lamale H H 201n 344n 34 n 359n
406n 400n
Landon N C 279n
Langdon J N 256
Langworthy C F 948 201 539 549
Laudering research in 294 296 298
Leader group 9 28
Learning experiences 18 19 55 61 86 87
119 191 147 149 187 188 210 247 246
273 270 321 329 396 398 439 441 491
499
Leavitt J A 448 468 478n 488 554
Lee M 8 95
Lee M G 46 n
Legal documents for mortgages 420 421
Le Canke T 49n
Leisure time
goals and 30 31
norms for 725 724
Levin A 74 83 111 109n
- Life cycle (See Family life cycle)
Life expectancy 438-439
table 532
Life insurance 451 454 456 459-465
mortgages 470
Life span of material goods 137 138 142
143
Lilienthal D M 74n
Lindeman J 294
Lindquist R 532 535
Lippitt R 81n 83n
Lipset S M 192n 193
Liquidity in securities 470-471
Liston M 531n
Litchfield E H 89n 90
Literature
interest arousal and 280
material goods control and 135 136
on stocks 466 467
Loans 478
costs 481 484
statutory 556 557
housing 408-409
precautions for 488-490
reasons for 476
sources of 484 487
Location family resources use and 207
209 210
Locke H J 15n 67n 100n
Lower class
fatigue in 260
living patterns of 193 194
managerial practices of 195 198
Lundberg C C 93n
Lunt S B 175n
- Macfie A L 145
MacInnis K C 51n
MacNab 431n
Maggiore A 231
Maisei A G 433n
Malone C C and L H 88 122 536
Management home
challenge of 3 19
change and 6 8
controlling plant in 97 108
decision making and 63 111 91 92
definition of 3 6
difficulties in studying 111 94
evaluation of results in 109 115
group relations and 13 14 115 117
history of (See Home management)
misconceptions clarified 11 13
motivation in 20 62
obstacles to improvement of 11 13
philosophy vs techniques in 14 15
planning stage in 94 97

- Phlegar B 421n
 Physiological fatigue 254 255 270 271
 Pissarro C L 166 167n
 Planning 90 94 97 117
 budgets 363 382
 decision making and 64 69
 for energy management 263
 evaluation of 114 (See also Evaluating)
 frequency of 96 97
 management definition and 4 5
 for material goods 133 134
 menu 97 504 507
 rating of 56 56b
 status and 196
 techniques of 96
 for time 232 237
 value of 94 9,
 Popularity criticism and 107 108
 Posture
 energy and 218 232 263 270
 for relaxation 233
 work simplification 306 313
 Poverty and life cycle 151 152
 Power E 523n
 Praise criticism and 105
 Prediction system in decision making 71
 72
 Pregnancy costs 430 431
 Preston F 363n 366n
 Prevey E 176 166n
 Price D Z 93n 94n 97n 115n 538
 Price H H 67n
 Price earnings ratio 469
 Privacy criticism and 105
 Probability decision making and 69 72
 Problem definition in decision making
 63 66 (See also Decision making)
 Process 89 90 (See also Management
 Process)
 chart 283 284 285 322
 Product changes 319 321
 Progress charts 113
 Protestantism's influence 523
 Psychic income 332 334
 Psychological
 fatigue 235 261
 time 216
 Purdue Work Simplification Conference
 530
 Purnell Act (1925) 536 537 339
 Puritan view of life 573
 Quaker decision making 78 79
 Quality
 resources and 128 139 140
 standards and 41-43
 Race working wife and 203
 Rapport goals and 32 34
 Rasmussen C L 143n
 Rath L E 24
 Rating scale for home management 547
 548
 residence course 562 567
 Records financial 383 387 391 392 504
 Recreation expenditures 348 351 354
 357
 Rees J I 194
 Rehabilitation work simplification and
 278 330 530
 Reichert A 203n
 Reid M 94n 535 541
 Reissman L 191
 Relaxation 230 232 233 240 271
 leisure time for 311 225 224
 Religious activities time for 224
 Remedial loan societies 486 487
 Renting vs home ownership 401-404
 Research 536 540
 in decision making 79 82 538
 in energy costs 248 254 539 549 550
 medical 133 434
 need for 544
 pen and pencil 283 287
 in time 219 225 539
 in work simplification 281 303
 Research and Marketing Act (1946) 537
 Residence
 income differences and 358 360
 life cycle and 169 163
 resource use and 20, 9
 working wife and 203
 Resident course 498 510 521 562 567
 Resources 15 173 149 190 211
 abilities as 174 127
 alternate uses of 141 143
 attitudes as 124
 awareness of 19
 balancing of choices among 144 146
 classification of 123 127
 community 124
 controlling and 134 137
 demand upon in life cycle 150 151
 employment and 202 207
 energy (See Energy management)
 evaluating and 137 139
 expanding appreciations of 144
 factors affecting use of 190 211
 family size and 200 209
 guide for studying 568
 historical thought on 570 574
 income and 199 200
 increasing supply of 141
 interrelatedness of 128 132

- Phlegar B 491n
 Physiological fatigue 254 255 270 271
 Pizarro G L 166 167n
 Planning 90 94 97 117
 budgets 363 382
 decision making and 64 65
 for energy management 263
 evaluation of 114 (See also Evaluating)
 frequency of 96 97
 management definition and 4 5
 for material goods 133 134
 menu 97 504 507
 rating of 563 566
 status and 196
 techniques of 96
 for time 232 237
 value of 94 95
 Popularity criticism and 107 108
 Posture
 energy and 248 252 263 264
 for relaxation 233
 work simplification 306 313
 Poverty and life cycle 151 152
 Power E 523n
 Praise criticism and 105
 Prediction system in decision making 71
 12
 Pregnancy costs 430 431
 Preston F 363n 366n
 Irevey E 176 366n
 Price D Z 93n 94n 97n 115n 538
 Price H H 67n
 Price earnings ratio 469
 Privacy criticism and 105
 Probability decision making and 69 72
 Problem definition in decision making
 65 66 (See also Decision making)
 Process 89 90 (See also Management
 Process)
 chart 283 284 285 322
 Product changes 319 321
 Progress charts 113
 Protestantism's influence 523
 Psychic income 332 334
 Psychological
 fatigue 253 261
 time 216
 Purdue Work Simplification Conference
 530
 Purnell Act (1926) 536 537 539
 Puritan view of life 523
 Quaker decision making 78 79
 Quality
 resources and 128 139 140
 standards and 41-43
 Race working wife and 203
 Rapport goals and 32 34
 Rasmussen C L 143n
 Rath L E 24
 Rating scale for home management 547
 548
 residence course 562 563
 Records financial 385 387 391 392 504
 Recreation expenditures 348 351 354
 357
 Rees J L 194
 Rehabilitation work simplification and
 218 330 530
 Reichert A 203n
 Reid M 94n 533 541
 Reisman L 191
 Relaxation 230 232 235 270 271
 leisure time for 30 31 223 224
 Religious activities time for 224
 Remedial loan societies 486 487
 Renting vs home ownership 401 404
 Research 556 540
 in decision making 79 82 538
 in energy costs 18 24 539 549 550
 medical 433 434
 need for 44
 pen and pencil 283 284
 in time 219 223 539
 in work simplification 281 303
 Research and Marketing Act (1946) 531
 Residence
 income differences and 338 360
 life cycle and 162 163
 resource use and 203 9
 working wife and 203
 Resident course 498 510 521 562 567
 Resources 13 123 149 190 211
 abilities as 124 127
 alternate uses of 141 143
 attitudes as 124
 awareness of 12
 balancing of choices among 141 146
 classification of 123 125
 community 124
 controlling and 134 135
 demand upon in life cycle 150 151
 employment and 202 203
 energy (See Energy management)
 evaluating and 137 139
 expanding appreciations of 144
 factors affecting use of 190 211
 family size and 200 202
 guide for studying 568
 historical thought on 520 524
 income and 199 200
 increasing supply of 141
 interrelatedness of 128 132

- Money Management (*continued*)
 in resources limit of 177
 socio-economic level and 197 199
 standards and 46 47 50 53
 Money value of real income 335 339
 Monroe D 341
 Moody's Investors Service 466-467
 Morgan C T 76n
 Morgan J N 74
 Morris A J 48
 Morse C 107n
 Mortality tables 438 439 55
 Mortgages 411 421
 legal documents for 477 478
 sources of 419-420
 types of 417 419
 Motion saving 781 287
 changes in 303 318
 film analysis of 331 337
 teaching and 514 516
 Motivation of management 70 62
 goals in 26 36
 misconceptions concerning 11
 standards in 36 53
 summary of 34
 values in 21 26
 Mott E 80n
 Multi-man charts 28, 286
 Mundel M 300n 301n 307n 304 529
 Munsterberg H 267n
 Murray B F 238
 Muscle use 264 265 266 267
 rest and 231 232
 rhythm in 267 269
 Muse M 160 201n 289 298 299n 304
 313
 Mutual companies investment in 467

 Nadler G 283n
 National Conference on Family Life 5 9
 10n 347 352
 National Council on Family Relations
 41
 National Health Survey 429 437
 Neisser E G 176n 366n
 Nelson G M 292
 Nelson T M 256
 Net worth statements 397 393
 New Directions for Home Economics 16
 New York U-Bellevue conferences on
 handicapped 533 534
 Newark C 533
 Newcomb T M 109n
 Newman W H., 89n 90 97n 98n
 Nick I P 98 100n 156 158n 312 376
 332 333
 Nicknames rapport and 37
 Nisan F J 70n 709n
 Nonhuman resources 121 147
 Nonverbal course 310 312
 Nonverbal communication rapport and
 33 34
 Norman D C 47n
 Normative values 75 77
 Nor D 77n

 Objectivity in criticism 104 10
 O'Brien C 93n 94n 9 n 107n 115n 334
 O'Brien R 155 340
 Observations guides for 367 377
 Occupation income and 310 311
 Ohio State I conference (1977) 333
 Older persons 177 184 (*See* Retirement)
 Olivo V E 419 539
 Olsen M E 14, 146
 Operation chart 284 287
 Oral directions 107 103
 Organizations and home management 340
 Osler E W 437 460
 Outlook Conference 317
 Overmanagement 10 11 9
 Oxygen consumption 2 1

 Pace F H 163n
 Packard V 43n
 Panels teaching 513 514
 Parallel working 103 104
 Parloa M 325
 Pasmore R 218n 753n
 Pathway chart 286 287 288
 Patterns of Living 193 194
 Paul C 280n
 Pawnbrokers 486 487
 Peak loads in time management 225 226
 Lear T H 310n
 Peer evaluation of management course
 308 309
 Pen and pencil research techniques 283
 78,
 Pennock J L 137n
 People vs things in materials manage-
 ment 132 1 9
 Perry E B 66n 66
 Personal development check list 58
 Personal resources 123
 Pfahl J E 467n 469n 487
 Phelan J M 5 80n 87n
 Philosophy (*See* Attitudes)
 of department of home economics 429
 toward resources 129 132
 vs techniques 14 13

- Snowman R ■ 377n 513n
- Social
- acceptability of standards 41 43
 - activities time for 224
 - contacts of aged 181
 - group influence on goals 27 28
 - income 332 334 338 339
 - legacies historical 519 524
 - resources 123
 - responsibility 35 36
- Social Security 184 449
- Socio economic status 191 198
- family crises and 197 198
 - fatigue and 198
 - fund allocation and 164 166
 - implications of 192 198
 - living patterns and 193 194
 - managerial attitudes and 195 198
 - resource use and 209
 - studying of 191 194
- Solvency budget and 380 381
- Sorden L G 389
- Sorokin P A 203
- Soule G 65n
- Spindler G D 93n
- Standard & Poors Corp 466
- Standard of living
- conventional American 45 46 193
 - cosmopolitan 53
 - definition 43 44
 - effect on use of resources 190
 - emulation and 46 47
 - individual 47
 - relation to values 20
 - simple 41 43
- Standards 20 36 43
- changing 39 40
 - classification of 39 39
 - conventional 38 39 40 43
 - criteria for choosing 40 43
 - emulation and 46 47
 - flexible 39 40 43
 - housing 404 407
 - individual 47 43
 - minimum adequate 343 346
 - of living 43 53 190 192 193 333 334 343 346
 - psychic income and 333 334
 - socio economic status and 192 194 (See also Socio-economic status)
 - work achieving 108
 - work simplification and 277 319 320
- Starr C 536
- Statistics in decision making 69 72
- Steele J M 71n
- Steele S M 302n 316n
- Stegemerten G J 283n 306n 307n
- Steidl R E 301 316n 339
- Stendler C B 23n
- Steps work simplification and 308 310 313
- Stock investment 464 474
- Storage and work areas 251 298 303 313 318
- Stork C W 39n
- Stotz M S 201n 344n 345n 358n 359n 405n 47n
- Stowe H B 132
- Stratification of society 191 198 (See also Socio economic status)
- Student
- home management (See Teaching)
 - peak time loads of 275 278
 - time planning of 234 236
- Studley I 533
- Submission in conflict 15 16 18
- Suburban use of resources 209
- Summer C E Jr 89n 97n 98n
- Supervision in management 89
- aspects of technical supervision 101 106
 - causes of failure in 106
 - evaluation of 114
 - in control of delegated plans 100 108 118
 - types of 100 101
- Sussman M R 170n 197
- Swanson G E 23n
- Swartz V W 248 250 251 539
- Sydenstricker E 13
- Tact supervision and 108
- Tatbot M 507 513
- Tannebaum R 64n
- Taylor F 231 26 108
- Teaching of home management 49 518
- adult 511 510
 - development of 26 543
 - future needs in 543 543
 - hometakers experience and 513 514
 - nonresident course in 510 510
 - organization of house and 501 501
 - resident course in 498 510 52
 - changes in 499 501
 - evaluation of 50 510
 - managerial experiences 504 507
 - organization of 501 504
 - rating scale for 567 567
 - underlying philosophy 499
- secondary level of 510 511
- special devices in 510 516
- summary of 516 517
- work simplification in 310 312 514 516

Resources (continue)

- interests as 174
- limits of 176 178
- location of family and 20 709
- management: definition and 3 4, 9
- managerial process related to all 93 137 139
- material goals as 12 177 179
- money as 127 (See also Money management)
- philosophy toward 129 137
- planning and 133 134
- quality of life and 139 140
- satisfaction from increasing 140 147
- similarities among 176 178
- socio-economic status and 191 194
- summary of 147
- time as (See Time management)
- utility increase of 144
- Rest periods
 - fatigue avoidance and 210 271
 - in time management 730 734
- Reston James 46n
- Retail credit 415 481 484 489 490
- Retirement 177 186
 - abilities in 182 183
 - activities in 180 181
 - community service in 182
 - expenditure in 358
 - income 177 183 184 447-449 457
 - living arrangements in 184 186
 - problems in 178 186
 - social contacts in 181
 - work and 179 180
- Reynolds L W 57n
- Rhythm in energy management 267 269
- Rich L D 77
- Rich M E 37
- Richter C P 216n
- Richards M H 146 526 534 536
- Richardson M 77n 277 283 303
- Riner E 71n
- Rittenhouse J B 39n
- Roberts E H 307n
- Roethlisberger F J 101 108
- Rokahr M 730 742
- Rollins M 312
- Roman influence 727 573
- Rose F 179
- Routing work simplification and 308 310
- Rountree B S 151 157
- Ruef R H 80n 81n
- Rural families (See also Farm)
 - car ownership 422
 - health insurance 436
- Rusk H 278
- Sales contracts 471
- Sanderson F 330
- Satisfactions from resources 134 137 140 147 317 324
- Saut Jaumann F 77n
- Savings 463 464
 - income and 144 377
 - from investment 77
 - philosophy toward 130 131
 - planning in relation to 3 1 340 341
 - world conditions and 4 14 3
- Savings and loan companies 447
- mortgage refinancing 419 470
- Schedules in time planning 233 234 235 237
- Schiffman J 77n 703n
- Schmaker P 80n 81n 734
- Schof Meyer C H 347
- Schultz R S 101n 104 107 279 310 311
- Schwab J L 743n 307n 307n
- Schwartz R 317
- Secular school home management courses 310 311
- Securities investment in 463-4 4
- Security family 413 494
 - assets creation and 419 474
 - audio visual aids for 771 5, 2
 - credit and 473 490
 - economic risks and 417 419
 - insurance and 419 463 (See also Insurance)
 - savings and investments and 463 474 (See also Savings Investments)
- Seifelin C 2 8n
- Self development goals and 30 31
- Self-evaluation 111 113
 - Series of projects time planning 733 233 239
- Services budget in 1 369 372
- Shared experiences rapport and 32 33
- Sharp H 80n
- Shea A 15n
- Shiras S 289n 363n
- Shock N W 1 8n 180n 181n 186n
- Simkovich M 48n
- Simo Chart of habits 533
- Simon H A 26n 67 67 91 98 110n
- Simplicity in standard of living 47 53
- Sixty values 23
- Sitting to work 272 273
- Size of family (See Family size)
- Skattebel M 253n 30n
- Skill in work 410 312
- Slote C 780n
- Small loan companies 484 485
- Smith R M 516n
- Smith Lever Act 547

- Snowman R S 377n 513n
 Social
 acceptability of standards 41 43
 activities time for 224
 contacts of aged 181
 group influence on goals 27 28
 income 332 334 338 339
 legacies historical 519 524
 resources 123
 responsibility 35 36
 Social Security 184 449
 Socio economic status 191 198
 family crises and 197 198
 fatigue and 198
 fund allocation and 164 166
 implications of 192 198
 living patterns and 193 194
 managerial attitudes and 195 198
 resource use and 209
 studying of 191 192
 Solvency budget and 380 381
 Sorden L G 389
 Sorokin P A 273
 Soule G 65n
 Spindler G D 95n
 Standard ■ Poors Corp 466
 Standard of living
 conventional American 45 46 193
 cosmopolitan 53
 definition 43-44
 effect on use of resources 190
 emulation and 46 47
 individual 47
 relation to values 20
 simple 47 53
 Standards ■ ■ ■ 43
 changing 39 40
 classification of 39 39
 conventional 38 ■ ■ 40-43
 criteria for choosing 40 43
 emulation and 46 47
 flexible 39 40 43
 housing 404 407
 individual 47 53
 minimum adequate 343 346
 of living 43 53 190 192 193 333 334
 343 346
 psychic income and 333 334
 socio economic status and 197 194 (See
 also Socio economic status)
 work achieving 108
 work simplification and 277 319 320
 Starr C 536
 Statistics in decision making 69 72
 Steckle J M 74n
 Steele S M 302n 316n
 Stegemerten G J 283n 306n 307n
 Steidl R E 301 316n 539
 Stendler C B 23n
 Steps work simplification and 308 310
 313
 Stock investment 464-474
 Storage and work areas 251 298 303 313
 318
 Stork C H 39n
 Stotz M ■ 201n 344n 345n 358n 359n
 405n 422n
 Stowe H B 132
 Stratification of society 191 198 (See also
 Socio economic status)
 Student
 home management (See Teaching)
 peak time loads of 270 276
 time planning of 234 236
 Studley L 530
 Submission in conflict 15 76 18
 Suburban use of resources 203
 Summer C E Jr 89n 91n 98n
 Supervision in management 89
 aspects of technical supervision 101 106
 causes of failure in 106
 evaluation of 114
 in control of delegated plans 100 108
 118
 types of 100 101
 Sussman M B 140n 197
 Swanson G E 23n
 Swartz V W 248 250 251 259 27
 Sydentrucker E 15_
- Tact supervision and 109
 Talbot M 71 130
 Tannerbaum R 64n
 Taylor F 231 240 28
 Teaching of home management 497 518
 adult 511 512
 development of 26 313
 future needs in 543 547
 homemakers experience and 13 514
 nonresident course in 10 512
 organization of house and 501 504
 resident course in 498 510 527
 changes in 499 501
 evaluation of 50 510
 managerial experiences 501 507
 organization of 501 504
 rating scale for 567 567
 underlying philosophy 499
 secondary level of 510 511
 special devices in 512 516
 summary of 516 517
 work simplification in 310 312 514 516

Resources (continued)

- interests as 124
- limits of 126 128
- location of family and 207 209
- management's definition and 3 4 7 9
- managerial process related to all 93
- 132 139
- material goods as 125 127 128
- money as 127 (See also Money management)
- philosophy toward 109 132
- planning and 133 134
- quality of life and 139 140
- satisfaction from increasing 140 146
- similarities among 125 128
- socio-economic status and 191 198
- summary of 147
- time as (See Time management)
- utility increase of 144
- Rest periods
 - fatigue avoidance and 240 271
 - in time management 230 237
- Reston James 46n
- Retail credit 473 481 484 489 490
- Retirement 174 186
 - abilities in 187 183
 - activities in 180 181
 - community service in 182
 - expenditure in 358
 - income 174 183 184 441 449 457
 - living arrangements in 184 186
 - problems in 178 186
 - social contacts in 181
 - work and 19 180
- Reynolds L W 522n
- Rhythm in energy management 267 269
- Rich L H a
- Rich M F 34
- Richter C P 716n
- Richards E H 146 377 534 536
- Richardson M 240n 247 243 303
- Riner F J 1n
- Rittenhouse J B 37n
- Roberts F H 307s
- Roethlisberger F J 107 108
- Rokahr M 530 477
- Rollins M 312
- Roman influence 22 523
- Rose F 179
- Routing work simplification and 308 310
- Rowntree B S 151 157
- Ruef R H 87n 81n
- Rural families (See also Farm)
 - car owners 41 472
 - health insurance 466
- Runk H 77s
- Sales contracts 421
- Sanderson F 530
- Satisfactions from resources 138 139 140
 - 146 332 334
- Saur Jaumann H 250n
- Savings 463 464
 - income and 348 352
 - from investment 552
 - philosophy toward 130 131
 - planning in relation to 371 380 381
 - world conditions and 471 473
- Savings and loan companies 487
- mortgages from 419 420
- Schedules in time planning 233 234 235
 - 237
- Schiffman J 202n 203n
- Schomaker P 80n 81n 738
- Schopmeyer C H 542
- Schultz R S 101n 104 107 229 310 311
- Schwab J L 283n 306n 307n
- Seashore R 347
- Secondary school home management
 - courses 510 511
- Securities investment in 463 474
- Security family 445 494
 - assets creation and 449 474
 - audio visual aids for 571 572
 - credit and 475 490
 - economic risks and 445 449
 - insurance and 449 463 (See also Insurance)
 - savings and investments and 463 474
 - (See also Savings Investments)
- Seidelin C 248n
- Self-development goals and 30 31
- Self-evaluation 111 113
- Series-of-projects time planning 233
 - 234 239
- Services budget and 369 372
- Shared experiences rapport and 37 33
- Sharp H 80n
- Shea N 15n
- Shira S 289n 373n
- Shock N W 181n 180n 182n 186n
- Simkovitch M 48n
- Simon Chart of hands 553
- Simon H A 26n 64 68 91 98 110n
- Simplicity in standard of living 47 43
- Survival values 23
- Sitting to work 247 243
- Size of family (See Family size)
- Skateboard M 253n 30n
- Skill in work 310 312
- Slote C 280n
- Small loan companies 484 485
- Smith R M 516n
- Smith Lever Act 542

- Ward Barbara 66n
 Warner W L 191 192n
 Warren J 95 160 216 224 539
 Watson G 311
 Watson J 8n 83n
 Weaver E K 258 293 294 539
 Weaver R C 413
 Weber M 523n
 Webster G W 262
 Weiss G S 541
 Weiskopf W A 26n
 Wells H L 367 368n 378 384
 Westley B 8n 83n
 White E L 430n
 White W H Jr 209
 Wiegand E 160 201n 204n 205 208n
 219 220 221 222n 223 260 539
 Wiehl D 150n
 Wife
 age of median life cycle and 154
 husband decision making 80 82
 money handling by 165 166
 responsibilities status and 195 196
 working (*See* Working wives)
 Wiley E W 294 296n 297n
 Willard E 525
 Willett E F 469n 486n
 Williams T C 522n
 Wilson M 502n
 Wilson P P 164n
 Winakor G 401n
 Wisconsin U first course at 527
 Wolgast E H 80n
 Wood E E 407
 Wood M W 512n 535
 Woodrow H 416n
 Woods I J 216n
 Work
 curves 226 230
 plans 506 507
 relationships checking of 106 107
 rotation in residence course 02
 units 224 225
 Work simplification 277 330
 audio visual aids for 570 571
 change in classes of 303 321
 Class I hand and body motions 306
 313
 Class I sequence of steps 308 310
 Class II storage and work areas 313
 318
 Class III product 319 301
 charts and 283 287
 definition and development of 277 278
 528 530
 fatigue and (*See* Fatigue)
 food preparation and 505 506 561
 for handicapped 278 530
 interest arousal in 279 281
 output and rest periods in 230 230
 research in 281 303 540
 techniques in 281 287
 classes of change as 303 301
 formal 281 283
 pen and pencil 281 287
 studies of 283 303
 bedmaking 289
 cleaning 289 291
 dishwashing 290 293
 food preparation 293 294
 laundering 294 296 298
 work and storage areas 313 318
 skill and 310 310
 standards and 277 319 320
 summary of 321
 teaching of 514 516
 time management and 219 277
 Working wives 202 207 377
 resource use by 209
 time management by 204 205 220 221
 World conditions money management
 and 381 471 473
 Wright R and M 43n
 Written directions 100 103
 Wyatt S 256

 Xenophon 620 523

 Yost E 529n
 Young L A 389
 Young M F 270n

 Zimmer E A 96n 100n 165 199n 208n
 260n 367n 383 537

- Teachers College Conference on Home making (1927) 531
- Technical supervision 101
- Techniques *vs* philosophy 14 15
- Technological resources 123
- Teen age credit 479 480
- Teen age home management training 511
- Terrill B 535
- Testing services 136
- Thayer R 307n
- Theognis 521
- Therbligs 283 501
- Things *vs* people in materials management 132 139
- Thomas D W 64n
- Thomas O W 536
- Thorpe A C 80n 81n 96n 115n 163 367n 583 537 538
- Thrift philosophy toward 130 131
- Time management 215 246
balance in 218 219
city 220 222
conservation of material goods and 131 132
controlling plan in 237 239
evaluating 239 241
farm 221 222 223
life cycle and 159 161
measurement units in 283
money costs and 142 143
motion and 277 330 (*See* Work simplification)
norms in 223 224
patterns and costs in 219 225
peak loads in 225 226
philosophy of 215 219
planning in 237 237
rating of 566
research studies in 219 225 539
as resource 126 127
rest periods and 230 232
retirement and 183
summary of 241
tools in 223 239
work curves in 226 230
work units 224 225 (*See also* Work simplification)
working wives and 204 205 220 221
- Tobacco expenditures 348 354 357
- Tools work simplification and 305 307 309
- Trade associations 136
- Traditional standards 38 39 40-43
- Training in home management 10 (*See also* Teaching)
for work skill 310 310
- Transportation costs 318 351 354 356 357 422 (*See also* Automobile)
- Treatise on Domestic Economy 523
- Trends and Needs in Home Management 33
- Troelstrup A W 383 386 466n 55n
- Tusser T 524n
- Tuttle D H 20n 204n
- U S Office of Education conferences 532
- U S Office of Vocational Rehabilitation 278
- Upper class
living patterns of 193 194
managerial practices of 193 198
- Urban
car ownership 422
farm differences 207 208 210 220 222 358
health 429 431 436
housing City Workers budget and 406
money management 346 348 350 351 352 356 406
interest differences in 358 360
resource use 207 208 210
time management 220 222
working wives 203 204 205 220 221
- Urwick F J 26n
- Utility increasing 144
- Values 16 21 26
classification of 25 26
decision making and 63 71 72
definition of 20 22
guide for observation of 567
importance of 21 22
hierarchy of 25 26
origin of 23 25
relation to goals 26
standards and 36 38 43
unsettled questions of 22 23
- Van Bortel D C 94n 165 195 196 197 198 21n 260 367 475 537
- Van Syckle C 80n 167
- Vedder M M 290n 540
- Vergil 522
- Waters M S 231n
- Vocabulary giving directions and 102
- Wagner C 48 49
- Walker L 224 225 539
- Wall Street Journal 467
- Walters J E 109

- Ward Barbara 66n
 Warner W L 191 192n
 Warren J 95 160 216 224 539
 Watson G 311
 Watson J 8n 83n
 Weaver F K 258 293 294 539
 Weaver R C 413
 Weber M 523n
 Webster G W 262
 Weiss G S 541
 Weisskopf W A 26n
 Wells H L 367 368n 578 584
 Westley B 8n 83n
 White F L 430n
 Whyte W H Jr 209
 Wickand E 160 201n 204n 207 208n
 219 220 221 222n 223 260 539
 Wiehl D 152n
 Wife
 age of median life cycle and 154
 husband decision making 80 82
 money handling by 165 166
 responsibilities status and 195 196
 working (See Working wives)
 Wiley E W 294 296n 297n
 Willard E 525
 Willett E F 469n 486n
 Williams T C 522n
 Wilson M 302n
 Wilson P P 164n
 Winakor G 401n
 Wisconsin U first course at 527
 Wolgast E H 80n
 Wood E E 407
 Wood M W 512n 535
 Woodrow H 216n
 Woods J J 216n
 Work
 curves 226 230
 plans 506 507
 relationships checking of 106 107
 rotation in residence course 502
 units 224 225
 Work simplification 277 330
 audio visual aids for 570 571
 change in classes of 303 321
 Class I hand and body motions 306
 313
 Class I sequence of steps 308 310
 Class II storage and work areas 313
 318
 Class III product 319 321
 charts and 283 287
 definition and development of 277 28
 528 530
 fatigue and (See Fatigue)
 food preparation and 505 506 561
 for handicapped 278 530
 interest arousal in 279 281
 output and rest periods in 250 25
 research in 281 303 540
 techniques in 281 287
 classes of change as 303 321
 format 281 283
 pen and pencil 283 287
 studies of 289 303
 bedmaking 289
 cleaning 289 291
 dishwashing 290 293
 food preparation 293 294
 laundering 294 296 298
 work and storage areas 313 318
 skill and 310 312
 standards and 277 319 320
 summary of 321
 teaching of 314 316
 time management and 219 27
 Working wives 207 207 37
 resource use by 209
 time management by 204 207 207 207
 World conditions money management
 and 381 471 473
 Wright R and M 43n
 Written directions 107 103
 Wyatt S 256

 Xerophon 570 521

 Yost F 529n
 Young L A 389
 Young M F 270n

 Ziemer E A 96n 100n 163 199n 208n
 260n 367n 383 334

- Teachers College Conference on Home
 making (1977) 531
 Technical supervision 101
 Techniques vs philosophy 14 15
 Technological resources 123
 Teen age credit 479 480
 Teen age home management training 511
 Terrill B 535
 Testing services 156
 Thayer R 507n
 Theognis 521
 Therbligs 283 521
 Things vs people in materials manage-
 ment 152 159
 Thomas D W 63n
 Thomas O M 536
 Thorpe A C 80n 81n 96n 115n 165
 367n 383 537 538
 Thrift philosophy toward 130 131
 Time management 215 246
 balance in 218 219
 city 220 222
 conservation of material goods and 151
 152
 controlling plan in 237 239
 evaluating 239 241
 farm 221 222 223
 life cycle and 159 161
 measurement units in 283
 money costs and 14 143
 motion and 211 330 (See Work simpli-
 fication)
 norms in 223 224
 patterns and costs in 219 225
 peak loads in 225 226
 philosophy of 215 219
 planning in 232 237
 rating of 566
 research studies in 219 225 539
 as resource 126 127
 rest periods and 230 232
 retirement and 183
 summary of 241
 tools in 223 232
 work curves in 226 230
 work units 224 225 (See also Work sim-
 plification)
 working wives and 204 205 220 221
 Tobacco expenditures 348 354 357
 Tools work simplification and 305 307
 308
 Trade associations 156
 Traditional standards 38 39 40 43
 Training in home management 10 (See
 also Teaching)
 for work skill 310 312
 Transportation costs 348 351 354 356
 357 472 (See also Automobile)
 Treatise on Domestic Economy 522
 Trends and Needs in Home Management
 552
 Troelstrup A W 385 386 466n 555n
 Tusser T 524n
 Tuttle D H 203n 208n

 U S Office of Education conferences 532
 U S Office of Vocational Rehabilitation
 278
 Upper class
 living patterns of 193 194
 managerial practices of 195 198
 Urban
 car ownership 422
 farm differences 207 208 210 220 222
 358
 health 429 431 436
 housing, City Workers budget and
 406
 money management 346 348 350 351
 52 356 406
 intercity differences in 358 360
 resource use 207 208 210
 time management 220 222
 working wives 203 204 205 220 221
 Urwick E J 26n
 Utility increasing 144

 Values 16 21 26
 classification of 25 26
 decision making and 63 71 72
 definition of 20 22
 guide for observation of 567
 importance of 21 22
 hierarchy of 25 26
 origin of 23 25
 relation to goals 26
 standards and 36 38 43
 unsettled questions of 22 23
 Van Bortel D C 94n 165 195 196 197
 198 217n 260 367 475 537
 Van Syckle C 80n 167
 Vedder A M 290n 540
 Virgil 522
 Vitale M S 231n
 Vocabulary giving directions and 102

 Wagner C 48 49
 Walker A 224 225 539
 Wall Street Journal 467
 Walters J E 109